DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 061 788 FL 002 942

AUTHOR	Slager, William R., Ed.; Madsen, Betty M., Ed.
TITLE	Language in American Indian Education: A Newsletter of the Office of Education Programs, Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior.
INSTITUTION	Bureau of Indian Affairs (Dept. of Interior), Albuquerque, N. Mex.
PUB DATE	71
NOTE	92p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	*American Indians; Cognitive Development; Conferences; Early Childhood Education; *Elementary Grades; English (Second Language); Instructional Materials; *Language Instruction; *Language Programs; Learning Theories; Newsletters; Resource Materials; Second Language Learning; Teacher Aides; Teacher Education; *Teaching Methods; Workshops
IDENTIFIERS	*Bureau of Indian Affairs

ABSTRACT

This newsletter contains articles which deal with current issues in education which are relevant to schools for Indian children and reports on Bureau of Indian Affairs activities, recent publications and conferences, text materials for the teaching of English, and bilingual reading materials. The newsletter begins with articles on early childhood education approaches, namely the Montessori and Piaget methods, and the "open classroom" method used in the British Infant School. An information exchange section follows with reports of teacher training programs, language study programs, workshops, curriculum bulletins, projects, and local resource materials for teachers. A section on specific instructional materials and programs is provided. The final section includes stories in several Indian languages and their translations. (VM)

ED 061788

LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION

A Newsletter of the Office of
Education Programs
Bureau of Indian Affairs
United States Department of the Interior

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

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FL 002 942

FALL 1971

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BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS
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LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION is a newsletter intended for teachers and other educators who are involved with the teaching of language in the educational system of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. It is prepared for the BIA by the University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112, under the direction of William R. Slager and Betty M. Madsen. Correspondence concerning distribution and editorial content should be directed to Mr. Robert Rebert, Chief, Language Arts Branch, Division of Educational Planning and Development, P. O. Box 1788, Albuquerque, New Mexico 87103.

Cover design from a print by Annamae One Star, adapted by Seymour Tubis, Graphic Arts Department, Institute of American Indian Arts, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

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A note to librarians:

With this issue, the newsletter is appearing under a new title, LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION. Previously known as ENGLISH FOR AMERICAN INDIANS, Volume I consisted of three issues: Autumn, 1968; Winter, 1969; and Spring, 1969. The three issues of Volume II are: Spring, 1970; Fall, 1970; and Spring, 1971.

FOREWORD

As in the past, the editors of LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION (ENGLISH FOR AMERICAN INDIANS until now) have again featured not only articles which deal with current issues in the rapidly changing education scene and which are relevant to schools for Indian children, but have covered a broad spectrum of BIA activities, recent publications and conferences, text materials for the teaching of English, and bilingual reading materials.

The value of such comprehensive coverage is twofold; it serves to keep BIA education personnel and others involved in the education of Indian students aware of available resources, and it informs the educational community in general of the multiplicity of activities taking place in the Bureau of Indian Affairs' education program.

As evidenced by this issue, this past summer has seen workshops for both new and experienced Bureau teachers in many phases of language education. New curriculum bulletins are available as well as publications from Area offices. It is important that we have a continuing dialogue with all those involved with education, and LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION helps to fill this important need.

James E. Hawkins, Director
Office of Education Programs

EDITORS' NOTE

In this first issue of the 1971-72 series, ENGLISH FOR AMERICAN INDIANS appears under a new title: LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION. This new title reflects a different and broader emphasis, one we feel is imperative in view of the changing directions that are being taken by many of those concerned with planning language programs in elementary and secondary schools where the students and a significant part of the community are culturally and linguistically distinctive. The earlier title seemed to suggest that the content of the newsletter should be confined to the teaching of English, and it implied as well that the teaching of English was being restricted to the highly specialized approach that has come to be known as "ESL." Unfortunately, in the eyes of many teachers and administrators, ESL has come to be identified with a carefully structured oral language class, more often than not taught for a single period in the school day, in which such audio-lingual techniques as pattern practice are used to develop accuracy and fluency in spoken English. Obviously this kind of limited and specialized approach could not begin to deal with the challenges and complexities involved in planning language programs in schools where English is the language of instruction for all subjects throughout the school day. Nor does it take into account the important ways in which two languages might be taught side by side, the one complementing and enriching the other, as in the experimental bilingual programs now being introduced in many schools throughout the country.

The two articles that open the present issue are examples of the broader approach to language teaching that ought to be taken when the subject is looked at in the larger context of the school curriculum. While the studies of Montessori and Piaget are well-known to specialists in early childhood education, the implications to be found in their writings for the planning of second-language programs have not been given the attention they deserve. It should be emphasized here that all three of our contributors regard their articles as tentative and exploratory. Their aim is

to call attention to an area that in language-teaching has been too long ignored: the very close relationship between language-learning and the total intellectual development of the child. In the first article, Elsa Jaffe Bartlett, a doctoral student at Harvard, gives a brief introduction to the work of the famous Italian educator, Dr. Maria Montessori. In the second, Evelyn Hatch and Anne Hensley of UCLA describe some of the basic ideas to be found in the writings of the Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget.

In keeping with the emphasis in the first section, the reviews in the Materials section are confined to language programs available for younger children. All of the programs reviewed, with the exception of DISTAR, were designed specifically for second-language learners. Teachers in Kindergarten and Grade One may find it somewhat reassuring to note that their needs are at last being considered. While texts for secondary school students and adults have been available for some time, the conscientious elementary teacher, convinced of the need for specialized materials to teach English to five and six year olds, has searched the publishers' catalogues in vain. Of course, the number of available programs is still limited. But at least a promising start has been made, and it begins to look as if more and more attention is being given to the development of language courses on the elementary level.

William R. Slager
Betty M. Madsen
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THE MONTESSORI METHOD

by

Elsa Jaffe Bartlett

Maria Montessori was born in 1870. In 1896, she became the first woman to receive a Doctor of Medicine degree from an Italian University. She was interested in the treatment of mentally retarded children, and in 1899 was appointed directress of a state-supported school for retarded children. Two years later, she presented some of these children at the public examinations for the primary certificate and created a sensation when the children succeeded in passing the exam. From that time on, she considered herself an educator rather than a doctor.

Although she was acclaimed for her work with retarded children, Montessori herself was less concerned with this triumph than with the serious questions it raised about the education of normal children. Characteristically, she reasoned that if mentally retarded children could be taught to equal the achievement of normal children, then something must be wrong with the way in which normal children were educated.

In 1906, she was invited to direct a new school for normal children in the slums of Rome. The school resembled a modern Day Care Center in that it provided care for the children of working mothers. The first classroom contained about fifty children between the ages of three and six. Eventually, similar Case dei Bambini were opened throughout the city, and the curriculum came to include both a primary and elementary program. Individual classrooms contained between forty and fifty pupils under the guidance of a single teacher. Children between the ages of three and six were placed in the primary room; those between seven and eleven attended the elementary class. A directress supervised the work of the entire school.

Montessori's work in the Children's Houses attracted a great deal

of interest. In 1909, the first Montessori schools were opened in Switzerland. By the 1920's, there were Montessori schools throughout Europe, in England, in South America, and later in India. Montessori herself spent the last part of her life promoting her ideas; she wrote, lectured, and personally supervised teacher-training programs in all parts of the world. She died in England in 1952.

The basic theory and methods which underlie Montessori's program at the Children's Houses are contained in three basic texts: The Montessori Method, (which describes the primary program), and Spontaneous Activity in Education and The Montessori Elementary Material, (which describe the elementary program). These were published in Italian shortly after the first Children's Houses were opened. English translations were published by 1911.

Today, some sixty years later, we in America are rediscovering Montessori's method, particularly her primary curriculum. At the same time, we are re-evaluating her insights into the nature of children's intellectual development. In this article, we will be examining the relevance of both for today's young children, particularly during the preschool years.

Montessori's Theory of Intellectual Development

Montessori's ideas are often compared with Piaget's. Both share certain basic beliefs about the nature of intellectual development and both came to these beliefs through the observation of children in their normal environments, the home and school, rather than in an experimental laboratory. Both believe development to be a process of metamorphosis during which certain primitive inborn reflexes are gradually transformed through interaction with the environment, into the more complex behaviors which we call cognition.

In addition, for both Montessori and Piaget, development proceeds through an invariant sequence of stages. All normal human children go through these stages (although, of course, each child will pass through the sequence at a different rate). Each stage is characterized by its own type of responsiveness to particular aspects of the environment and its own way of integrating the environment into its existing responses. In the earliest stages (for Montessori, the time from birth through the age of six) development occurs through the movement and manipulation of con-

crete objects in space. In other words, experiences are filtered through a set of possible actions which may be performed upon them. In the beginning, the sets of actions are fairly simple. When an infant encounters an object, one of his principle ways of knowing or thinking about it is to determine whether it can be sucked. A rattle can be readily incorporated into the class of "suck-able" objects, but Daddy's shoe will probably be incorporated into another, reciprocal group, comprised of objects which are "too-big-to-be-sucked."

As the child gets older, the range of actions becomes far more complex, but his reasoning is still the product of specific experiences with particular objects and direct action, centered on the particular elements which interest the child at any given moment. Thus, for example, a four year old may not recognize his teacher if he sees her on a weekend shopping at a local supermarket. Why not? Because the teacher "lives" in the school; she can have no existence outside of the child's specific classroom experience with her. Or again, a four-year-old may be confused about the status of his pet cat. Is it a little brother? Yes, because it lives in the same house.

As we can see, the child's process of knowing is quite different from an adult's and leads to certain "ideas" or "concepts" which we might find bizarre. It is the genius of both Piaget and Montessori to have alerted us to the discrepancies between child and adult intelligence and, perhaps more important, to have arrived at some plausible ways of reaching the mind of a child; Piaget through his analysis of the process of intellectual development and Montessori through her "prepared environment."

The Prepared Environment

Montessori often called her classrooms "prepared environments." She saw that learning is basically self-learning and that the teacher - with all the effort and goodwill in the world - cannot undertake to learn for the child. Therefore she attempted to create a learning environment in which children might, to a large extent, educate themselves. The learning would take place through a series of carefully sequenced encounters with "didactic materials" (and these materials, which are the core of the method, represent the point at which Montessori's theories take concrete form as a pedagogical system). However, Montessori never made the mistake of assuming that materials by themselves provide a self-instructional environment. Along with the materials must come a re-definition of the roles of the teacher and the child in the learning enterprise.

But what constitutes a prepared environment? How is it possible for children to educate themselves? Montessori designed her classrooms according to a few basic principles:

1) The prepared environment makes contact with the child at his level of intellectual functioning. For the young child, this means that physical objects are the best teachers, since they allow him to exercise his sensori-motor approach to learning. In other words, such abstract notions as number-ness, serial order or various supra-ordinate relationships, must be translated into physical experiences. Montessori had a positive genius for doing this. For example, she designed a set of ten wooden cubes to acquaint children with basic concepts of size. The smallest cube has a base of one centimeter; the largest ten centimeters. They are all painted the same color. Children arrange the cubes to form a tower of gradually decreasing dimensions, using the largest as a base. Children judge the accuracy of their work by the step-like pattern of regularly decreasing blocks. Similarly, concepts of length are illustrated with a set of ten wooden rods. Each rod is one unit longer than the preceding one. On each rod, units are painted alternately red or blue. Initially, the child mixes up the rods and then arranges them in a pattern from shortest to longest. When so arranged, the colors form a series of transverse stripes. Later, children measure length more precisely, by counting the number of red and blue bands on each rod.

2) The prepared environment provides the child with points of simplified and orderly contact with the world. Each piece of material in the environment directs the child's attention to one particular dimension, attribute, or idea; by manipulating the materials - by arranging them into some sort of simple pattern - the child learns to distinguish relationships among these attributes. Thus, the cubes of the tower are all the same color and the same shape; only size varies. The rods are the same shape and the same diameter; only the length varies. Similarly, the "color tablets" are the same size and shape; the basic weights are the same size, and so forth. In other words, the materials are varied along the dimension to be studied while all other aspects of the material are held constant. Each presents, in effect, a single variant within a simplified field.

3) The materials in the environment are designed so that children - by following a simple pattern - can perceive and correct their own errors. When using the tower or the rods, children judge their own work by the regular step-like pattern of decreasing (or increasing) intervals. Geometric shapes are outlined on cards and children match each shape with its appropriate silhouette.

4) Most of the materials (particularly the ones for the younger children) are designed to be used by a single child, working individually, at his own pace.

5) The prepared environment is designed so that children can function independently and can, in effect, select their own schedules of learning encounters. Several things are involved. First, as we have seen, the materials are self-correcting and provide a "point of orderly contact" with ideas, based on the child's stage of intellectual development. Each piece of material has its own specific place in the environment and is to be used according to precise rules. When a teacher feels that a child is ready to explore a new material, she shows the child where to find it, how to use it and how to return it to its place. The child then can choose to use the material - always according to the rules - or he may decide that he isn't interested. If this is the case, the teacher does not push. She relies on the child's innate sense of what is appropriate for his own development. She may at a later time introduce the material again, or the child himself may spontaneously return to it. And she will intervene only if she sees a child using the materials in an unprescribed way. But basically, the materials and the classroom are designed so that the child can function independently. To be sure, it is freedom within a highly structured environment, but within these limits, the child is encouraged to choose his own learning encounters.

The Role of the Child

The freedom of a Montessori classroom is based on certain assumptions about children and about the nature of the developmental process. First, Montessori assumes that a child will spontaneously concentrate on tasks which nourish his intellectual growth. If the child does not concentrate, it is because he is somehow working on a task which does not match his growth level. Second, since the child will unconsciously know more about himself than any teacher can and since he will instinctively satisfy his developmental needs, he should be allowed to choose his own experiences. Third, there is no need for extrinsic motivation since the solution of intellectual problems is entirely satisfying and absorbing to the child. Fourth, since growth and learning are based on stages, the child learns when he is ready - when he has worked out the responses of the previous stage. It makes no sense, then, to correct the child or insist that he master a task, for if he fails, it is because the task does not match his level of development. When he is ready, he will be able to work with the material successfully. Until then, he should be helped to choose another activity.

The Role of the Teacher

In the prepared environment, the teacher functions primarily as an observer. Her first task is to become aware of the developmental level and individual learning habits of her pupils. Her main problem is in deciding when to introduce new materials. When she feels that a child is ready, she will provide a simple, precise demonstration of the way in which each material is to be used and, if necessary, a few words to label the object, attribute, or relationship under study. If the child does not seem to understand, the teacher's natural inclination might be to provide a second demonstration coupled with a more elaborate verbal explanation. Montessori cautions against this, reasoning that additional words and actions might only serve to confuse the child further. Instead, she advises the teacher to help the child choose another activity and, perhaps, to reintroduce the material at another time. Except for the introduction of new material, the teacher is cautioned to intervene as little as possible in the work of the children.

The Role of Language

Language plays a limited role in the prepared environment. The bulk of the instruction is transmitted through gesture and demonstration. There are few small-group learning encounters and nothing of the 'verbal bombardment' found in many programs for today's disadvantaged. The language aspect of the lessons occurs in three stages. First the teacher helps the child link the object or idea with its name. (For example, she might say: "This is a triangle. This is a square.") Next, the child is asked to recognize the object which corresponds to the name. ("Point to the triangle. Point to the square.") Finally, the child is asked to remember the name when confronted with the object. ("What is this?" And, if help is needed: "Is it the square or the triangle?") Obviously, this is a highly specialized language designed to convey very specific instructional messages, to help the child make appropriate discriminations and, perhaps, to aid his memory. It is entirely in keeping with Montessori's emphasis on simplicity - on presenting one aspect of the environment at a time against a very simplified field - and on her conviction that learning occurs not through verbal events but through the manipulation of objects in the environment.

There is little place in such a scheme for other language functions, such as the development of communication skills - persuasion, asking and answering questions, making hypotheses, explanations, arguments. Nor is there emphasis on the process of symbol

formation itself, a process which Piaget sees as underlying language development. There is no socio-dramatic play, block play or other imaginative use of objects as symbols.

The Montessori Curriculum

The curriculum grows quite logically from Montessori's basic concepts about intellectual development and the nature of the child as learner. It is a very sophisticated attempt to link the psychological needs of the child with the requirements of a traditional curriculum.

According to Montessori, development of the child is marked by several special transitory "sensitive periods" during which the child is particularly sensitive to one aspect of the environment and "instinctively" or unconsciously seeks experiences with that aspect. During the sensori-motor period, these include a period of language sensitivity (during which the child acquires his native language); a sensitive period for order between the ages of two and four (during which children take great satisfaction in arranging objects according to pre-set patterns and pursuing a set sequence of events); and, between the ages of two and six, a period for refinement of the senses, during which children are able to make particularly fine discriminations among sensory experiences.

To Montessori, each special sensitive period provides a tremendous store of energy and interest which might be harnessed for learning such basic subjects as arithmetic and reading, provided that the teacher is able to present learning activities in ways that make use of the child's instinctive needs and inclinations. Thus, for example, during the period for refinement of the senses, children are learning to make increasingly fine visual and auditory discrimination which provide excellent preparation for reading. Many materials are constructed in such a way that, in handling them, children develop thumb and index finger coordination. Children acquire muscular control of writing instruments as they trace geometric shapes and as they attempt to fill in the drawn figure, using parallel strokes of the pencil. As preparation for identifying the sand-paper letters, children learn to discriminate, blindfolded, among different kinds of textures. And in learning to trace the sandpaper letters, children are also establishing a kinesthetic memory necessary to writing.

The original Montessori curriculum, as outlined in The Montessori Method and in two books which describe the program for older children, is quite traditional: it includes reading, writing, arith-

metic, geometry, geography, grammar and natural science. In the preschool program, the curriculum begins with the "exercises of practical life." Children learn to care for themselves, their clothing and various items in the classroom. They learn to scrub, polish, fasten, carry, and balance a variety of real objects, much as adults might do in the home. Each task is performed in a precise series of steps as demonstrated by the teacher. (There are, for example, thirty-two steps to the handwashing exercise). To some, this might seem like an empty ritual. Montessori claims, however, that the precisely ordered movements are intensely satisfying to a child between the ages of two and four, who is particularly sensitive to order. And in addition, while satisfying the psychological needs of the child the exercises help children develop dexterity and a sense of balance, promote an awareness of body movement and body function and help young children become competent, independent members of the classroom community - able ultimately to care for the materials, clean their own workspaces, even prepare their own meals. Thus, the exercises combine practical curriculum goals with a mode of activity that is psychologically satisfying and suited to the child's level of intellectual functioning.

The exercises of practical life are followed by the exercises in sensory discriminations. Each is designed to help children make accurate discriminations, not to introduce new sensations, but to help the child bring systematic order to the impressions he has already received.

In the third phases of the program, more traditional subjects are introduced. Children's experiences with manual dexterity and pencil control is now developed into writing. Their ability to order objects according to length, shape, color, weight, etc., now develops into more formal work with numbers. Their perceptual work with textures and sounds leads to the recognition of the sandpaper letters and, ultimately the sound and letter relationships necessary for reading.

Montessori Today

Montessori was first and foremost a superb curriculum designer with a genius for translating highly abstract ideas and relationships into concrete materials. Many of her materials, particularly in mathematics, have been adapted for general use and can be found in almost any type of preschool or primary classroom today. Her materials have also served as models for countless toys on the retail market. Her prepared environment, created some sixty years ago, manages to anticipate and combine the discipline of today's

programmed instruction techniques with some of the depth and richness of current inductive or "discovery" methods, without losing touch with certain basic psychological needs of young children. While her goals were always traditional, (her aim, after all, was to teach the three r's), her methods were based on a psychology of intellectual development rather than a logic of subject matter. Few educators have been able to achieve a comparable synthesis of psychology and instructional technique.

However, in evaluating her program as a whole, certain questions should be raised:

1) Montessori may have underestimated the role of symbol formation and language in intellectual development. To some psychologists, language lies at the very heart of intellectual functioning, through the process of verbal meditation. And even a Piagetian, for whom language plays a relatively minor role in the development of logical reasoning, would probably want to provide greater opportunities for children to exercise basic symbolic functions including, perhaps, block play, socio-dramatic play, story-telling and dramatization.

2) If one holds with Piaget that a variety of social interactions are crucial for intellectual growth, particularly for helping young children develop de-centered (or un-egocentric) points of view, then the Montessori environment, with its emphasis on individual encounters with materials (as opposed to group interaction) may actually serve to prolong the egocentric stage of development.

3) Each piece of didactic material is designed to present a specific concept in a specific way. Children are discouraged from seeking new relationships with the materials; for example, blocks from the Tower, which are designed to illustrate size relationships, are not used in a counting or weighing activity. It may be, however, that variety is important for intellectual development and that children should have an opportunity to test their new ideas on a variety of objects, new ones and ones which have been previously used to illustrate other relationships. Within the Montessori environment, such creative flexibility is rarely encouraged.

4) Children in the Montessori environment are encouraged to search for single "right" answers. Generally, the child's job is to arrange the equipment in a single pattern or to organize and perform a task according to a precise sequence of steps. There is little in the equipment or curriculum to lead a child to ask questions, especially the kind of open-ended questions which might lead to prolonged and unplanned exploration of new material. In-

stead, the child learns to give answers and search for predetermined patterns. While this may be a perfectly acceptable and very efficient way to learn to manipulate existing symbol systems (such as the systems of reading, writing and basic arithmetic), it may not necessarily be the best way to help children develop basic communication or reasoning skills.

Selected Bibliography of Works of Maria Montessori

THE MONTESSORI METHOD. New York: Schocken Paperback Books, 1964. $1.95

SPONTANEOUS ACTIVITY IN EDUCATION. New York: Schocken Books, 1965.

THE MONTESSORI ELEMENTARY MATERIAL. New York: Schocken Books, 1966.

POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

In her article, Mrs. Bartlett deals with Montessori's ideas about the very early stages of learning, roughly up through age six. It is in this early stage of learning that concept development is emphasized. Later, roughly from ages seven through ten, Montessori believes that the child goes through a second special period of sensitivity to language. It is at this time that the teaching of "grammar" and "reading" are emphasized in Montessori's curriculum. Even though the present article is limited to the early stages of learning, however, the editors feel that it contains a number of implications for language teaching that might well be explored by all those involved in ESL and bilingual programs. The following list is extremely tentative and offered only for the purposes of discussion.

1. Apparently Montessori regards the teaching of concepts (for example, of size and length) as central to early learning and introduces only the language necessary to guide the children in activities that develop those concepts. Further, she believed that in the early stages, the development of concepts can best be accomplished "through the movement and manipulation of concrete objects in space." Such an assumption might have the following implications for language teaching:

    a. That in the early stages (pre-school, and perhaps K and 1) the curriculum should be built around lessons that develop concepts, and the teaching of language as such (which requires a more abstract manipulation of words and sentences) should be minimized.

    b. That (contrary to the approach often followed in "language enrichment" programs) the children should not be bombarded with language. The language used should be strictly limited to that needed to deal with the concept being taught. Objects need not be labeled, for example, until the children understand the concept that the objects are used to develop. To phrase it another way, learning concepts takes precedence over learning vocabulary.

    c. Montessori's arguments for careful control of the teacher's language are based on two assumptions that would readily be accepted by the second-language teacher: (1) that excessive instructional language serves no purpose and (2) that instructional language, because it is

adult language, might easily be misunderstood or misinterpreted by the child. (Of course, since Montessori did not have a second language situation in mind, she has nothing to say about teaching the language needed for other purposes - for social interaction, for creative expression, etc.).

2. Another basic assumption made by Montessori is that a child will not learn a concept until he is ready to learn it, and that children mature and learn at different rates. In the Montessori method, each individual child works on an activity that is appropriate for him and he works at his own pace. If this assumption of Montessori's is correct and if it can be extended to language teaching, it presents an enormous challenge to the writer of materials and to the teacher to discover new ways of individualizing instruction - especially since traditional language texts offer one single learning sequence for all learners, and traditional language classes emphasize class and group instruction. The editors believe that the problems involved in individualizing instruction in the language class are important enough to deserve a full-length article at some later date. The three points that follow attempt to mention only briefly some of the problems involved:

a. The monolithic classroom, in which students are asked to respond in chorus and in which all the students are working at the same time on the same point, is clearly unthinkable. Perhaps some modification toward the individualizing of instruction might be possible by way of small groups. Although some of the newer materials make allowance for practice in small groups, they have not been prepared with this approach as a major point of emphasis. But it is difficult to conceive of an oral language program in which the child is working only with himself. The child learning oral language needs to ask and answer questions and to explain his ideas to others.

b. A single set of sequenced lessons, in which all of the students (or the majority of them at least) are expected to follow the same linear progression of language development, is also clearly antithetic to the principle of individualized learning. It would be interesting to consider experimenting with a different kind of format than that traditionally employed, one in which there are several alternate sets of lessons. Although each set of lessons would have a different ordering of teaching points and different activities and emphasis, the long-range language goals of each set would be the same. Of course, such a format would be enormously time-consuming and ex-

pensive to develop. An alternative is to have the individual teaching points broken down in great detail and the over all goals so carefully spelled out that the child could select those items that are most relevant to him at a particular point in time.

c. Montessori's observation about the futility of insistence on mastery could be usefully applied to many second language classrooms, where the children become frustrated and bored when teachers keep going over the same point because mistakes are still being made. If the child has not mastered something, it is because he is not yet ready to master it, and the teacher should go on to something else that the child can do. Of course, in conventionally written language lessons, which order the material linearly on an ascending scale of easy to difficult, there is not much opportunity for taking alternate directions. If the teacher is to be flexible, it seems a certain flexibility must be built into the materials. The current insistence by some teachers on "mastery" in language teaching is no doubt due in part to statements found in the linguistics texts of the 40's and 50's to the effect that a child has mastered his native language by the age of five or six. Current studies of child language acquisition are revealing that the child of six does not control all of the syntactical rules of adult language. (See Evelyn Hatch's article in the Fall, 1970 issue of the Newsletter).

3. Montessori's assumption about motivation is one that deserves careful consideration by those involved in the planning of bilingual programs. According to Mrs. Bartlett, Montessori believed that "there is no need for extrinsic motivation since the solution of intellectual problems is entirely satisfying and absorbing to the child." That is, all children are intellectually curious and interested in activities that involve problem solving. But there is no statement here (nor anywhere in the literature that we are aware of) that younger children are interested in using another language for its own sake. That is, it appears to be the adult (and a special kind of adult at that) who likes to learn another language simply because he finds that knowing other languages is intellectually and emotionally rewarding. If a bilingual program is to be ultimately successful, it seems to us that the following questions must be carefully debated and that satisfactory answers must be found:

a. If the child is inherently interested in solving intellectual problems, then he will need at least some language

to understand the teacher's instructions, to ask and answer questions and explain solutions. Thus, the use of one language, either first or second, can be justified as a vehicle for imparting knowledge. The teaching of language as language - that is, the use of a series of lessons that do not center around the development of basic concepts or basic subject matter - cannot be justified.

b. Granted that the young child is inherently interested in solving intellectual problems, why is it that he should be taught to solve the same problem in two languages? That is, what is the point of requiring a child to formulate the same solution in two different ways? Further, if the "bicognitive" approach has genuine justification, how will it be possible to convince a young child that he needs this special ability? The basic question here is concerned with the use of two languages as vehicles of instruction. It is obvious, of course, that all children will pick up those languages they need to use outside the classroom - languages used by their families and peers. But programs that assume that both languages can be used as media of instruction (for example, that all subjects are to be taught in both languages) clearly must face up to the problem of motivation. There is no evidence to date that young children are inherently interested in using two languages as vehicles for learning the same concepts. In such programs, some kind of extrinsic motivation must be built into the curriculum.

c. If the child is inherently interested in learning such fundamental concepts as size and space relationships, might it also be true that he has an inherent interest in finding out about how language works - that is, in language analysis? If a set of experimental language lessons could be organized around a sequence of inductive procedures that ask the children to compare the two languages involved (procedures paralleling to some degree the organization of Montessori's lessons on concrete objects), would we discover that children are as curious and eager to learn about language as they are about other aspects of the world around them? The possibility is an exciting one. For it adds one more dimension to the bilingual curriculum.

PIAGET AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

by

Evelyn Hatch and Anne Hensley

There are two main educational philosophies that provide the basis for much of what is done in early childhood education. One is based on what the child does and the other on what we as teachers do. Jean Piaget is the writer who has helped us understand the first philosophy through his observations and reports on what the child brings to the learning situation.

For most teachers the name Piaget conjurs up three things: egocentric speech, conservation experiments, and language and cognition - or else a picture of that friendly little man in his French beret on the cover of one of his books. Probably no elementary school teacher has escaped reading Piaget or about Piaget. Despite all the mystique that surrounds his name, he is also the least-followed authority when it comes to plans for the schooling of young children in America. He is out of fashion in the present world of "intervention programs" and the teacher-centered curriculum.

We're not going to spend any time on the Piaget-Vygotsky-Flavel arguments on the uses and causes of egocentric or private speech. You can read an excellent summary of the arguments of form, function and causes of egocentric speech in Kohlberg et al. (1968). All teachers are aware that much of the talk of very young children seems to be directed at no one in particular and doesn't seem to call for any response from people in the area. The question for the teacher must be, "What difference does it make to later learning whether the child does or doesn't move away from egocentric speech to more socially-motivated speech as fast as possible?"

Nor are we going to write about conservation experiments. You can send for the hundreds of replication studies given each year

at the various psychology and education conventions. Many adults, too, have trouble believing that the amount of water which only fills the bottom of a short, wide jar can almost overflow a tall, thin bottle. I doubt if many teachers are surprised when children find such things puzzling. Again, the questions are: "How important is it that the child be able to solve such problems at an early age? What does it say about his later intellectual abilities if he can or can't work them out by age seven?"

Stages in Cognitive Growth

But theories about the relationship between language and cognition are important to curriculum planning, and it is here that Piaget has the most to say to the teacher. The Geneva School stresses that cognitive growth happens naturally as the child develops. He moves naturally through a series of stages; it is a universal property of growing up. Cognitive growth can be represented first through action (the "enactive mode"), then the visual mode, and finally through more abstract modes like language. In this move toward abstraction the child goes through a number of stages. These are described in detail in Piaget's works and you probably had to memorize them for some education course.

Jerome Bruner, too, has written much about the enactive, and even more about the visual mode of representation. When a toy disappears, for example, the very young child will try to replicate the action that made it disappear in order to make it reappear. He may swing his arm back and forth in hopes of making a ball, which has rolled out of sight, reappear in his hand. He is using the enactive mode to solve the problem. The enactive mode, of course, is appropriate for many problems - tying shoes and finding your way home from school, for instance.

The somewhat older child will pay close attention to visual detail in his attempts to solve problems. For example, given picture cards to sort, he will rely on the visual mode. A car, a dress and a book may all be grouped together because "one is red, one is blue, and one is green." Or a house, a pair of scissors, a button and a bridge may be put together because "they all have holes in them." Only later (around eight) will he sort them into groups by "you can eat them," "you can wear them," etc. Note that all children have well-developed language skills by this time so it is not "language deficiency" that causes him to sort as he does. Rather, he is using the visual mode to solve a problem and the solution is not acceptable to us as adults.

While Piaget and Bruner agree in their descriptions of the order

of cognitive growth, the Harvard and Geneva Schools at this point part ways. And the American school system goes off with Bruner. We teachers have accepted the notion that we must train the child to free himself from reliance on perceptual details. We must train him in the uses of language to teach him concepts. Our schools, and we with them, have adopted the view that the child does not do this naturally on his own. Piaget says he does. We say he must be instructed. That's what early childhood intervention programs are all about. We believe that via language we can move the child swiftly from stage to stage. The child is taught to sort cards in the eight-year-old way when he is five. He is given, via language drills, a "lattice" or "lens" to help him organize his perceptual world. Our drills ("A banana is a fruit, an orange is a fruit, a pencil is not a fruit")invite him to form a concept of the class fruit. For a Piagetian, such instruction is a waste of time - the teacher's time and the child's. It is a waste of time for the child because he will form the concept more efficiently when he is ready to. And most children do not eat pencils anyway. The child acquires an object concept or a class concept even though he may not talk about it or even sort cards according to it. He knows a potato is food whether it confronts him baked, boiled, mashed or French fried. He recognizes and treats it as food whatever its momentary shape or disguise. He may, of course, like to play with his food but he doesn't try to wear it.

Such training is a waste of time for the teacher too. First of all it's frustrating. Inhelder (1966) has reported on a number of careful attempts to train children in problem solving or concept formation by teaching them new ways to talk about the problem or concept. The general findings of all these studies has been that special linguistic training has no results unless the child has already reached the point where he understands and wants to talk about the problem. No matter how much you and he talk about the amount of water in the fat, wide bottle and the tall, thin bottle, you will not convince the child unless he already has formed, through experience with water and bottles, the basis of the concept. Of course, you can teach him to recite parrot-wise. But you should not confuse his recitation with real understanding. For example, even if a child uses number words fluently and can do rote counting, this doesn't allow us to conclude he knows what he's talking about. The same child after counting closely-compacted beads and then widely-spaced beads, and arriving at the same number for both, will still tell you there are more beads on the rod where they are widely spread.

For the Piagetian, then, language training alone cannot give the child the lattice to organize concepts. Rather the lattice is

constructed through the child's interaction with the environment and his interiorizing of these actions. The interiorizing is not dependent on language alone even though language is one valuable way for recoding and storing the information. For the teacher and the students our drills on classification, our recitation of facts is a waste of time because understanding concepts is not equal to an accumulation of facts. Piaget maintained that:

> To know an object, to know an event is not simply to look at it and make a mental copy, or image of it. To know an object is to act on it. To know is to modify, to transform the object, and to understand the process of this transformation, and as a consequence to understand the way the object is constructed. An operation is thus the essence of knowledge, it is an interiorized action, which modifies the object of knowledge.

For teachers, then, it seems less useful to teach a structure that is, to explain the organization of a concept or idea, than to present the child with situations where he is active and creates the structures himself. The goal is not merely to store facts, but to create possibilities for the child to invent and discover for himself. "Teaching means creating situations where structures can be discovered; it does not mean transmitting structures which may be assimilated at nothing other than a verbal level." (Duckworth, 1964, p. 3).

The child constructs his own "lattice" by interaction with the situations which you and others set up for him and also in part through communication with others (communication, not drills). Drills, such as those included in so many of our Head Start program materials ("An A is a Y, a B is a Y, a C is not a Y. . ."") do not give the child a chance to construct the lattice on his own. It may produce children who can recite drills or sort cards in an eight-year-old way, but what does this have to do with cognitive growth? And, more important, what effect does such "formal training" have on the child's development at a later age? The evidence now suggests that it is harmful. And, in fact, a great deal of the evidence supports Elkind's hypothesis that the longer we delay formal instruction, up to a certain limit, the greater the period of plasticity and the higher the ultimate level of achievement. (Cf., for a start, Husen, 1967; Kohlberg, 1968; Elkind, 1969; and Rohwer, 1971.)

This does not mean early childhood education should be abandoned. Far from it. Certainly the school can have a very great effect on the child's intellectual growth. It is a place where new and exciting experiences (which lead to knowledge) can happen every

day. It is a place where new uses for language can be an innovative part of the curriculum. The authors like to think of Moffett, Holt, the British Infant School and even Dewey as Piagetian people. They have described precisely the curriculum which allows the child to develop naturally (as Piaget says he does anyway). At the same time they advocate optimal opportunity for children to interact with all kinds of materials, activities, play, and people, stimulating the widest possible interaction pattern. These actions and interactions, not formal training, stimulate the greatest possible growth in the child.

This has turned into something of a polemic against many of our present early childhood programs, but we think that we teachers have been oversold on the value of formal instruction for very young children. The reaction to the Westinghouse evaluation of Head Start programs shows how dangerous this is. We all believe in the value of early childhood education, but perhaps we need to do some re-thinking about our programs with two basic questions in mind: Does our present emphasis on training make sense in light of the potential rgrowth that Piaget says all children have? Do we know that the instructional goals we have chosen are necessary, or even helpful, in acquiring skills needed for later development?

Our jobs as teachers, and especially as teachers of children from different cultures, would be more exciting, interesting, and rewarding if we didn't feel pressured into feeding facts to children but instead worked to create the kind of curriculum that allowed the child to develop his natural potential for cognitive growth.

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POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Piaget has many things to say about language that the authors of the present article were not able (because of limitations of time and space) to develop, and the authors did not address their attention specifically to the direct applications of Piaget's ideas to language teaching. Still, the editors feel that the following applications might be inferred from the article by Hatch and Hensley.

Materials:

1. ESL materials are conventionally planned around a sequenced set of grammatical structures. Then contexts are selected through which the structures can be presented and practiced in a meaningful way. This article seems to suggest that it would be more reasonable to plan materials around concepts which the child is ready to acquire, and then to select the grammatical structure which will be needed.

The Teacher and the Children:

1. The teacher should be alert to the interests of the child and plan language activities around these interests.

2. No matter what curriculum is being followed, the teacher should not feel obliged to teach concepts and language structures to the children if they demonstrate repeatedly and clearly that they are not yet ready to learn these things. In short, daily observation of individuals and groups will provide the clues for the kind of language practice that is relevant and meaningful.

THE BRITISH INFANT SCHOOL

"A Little Bit of Chaos: The British Infant School," by Beatrice and Ronald Gross, SATURDAY REVIEW, May 16, 1970, pp. 71-73, 84-85. A SUMMARY.

THE BRITISH INFANT SCHOOL: REPORT OF AN INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR. |I|D|E|A|'s Early Childhood Series, Vol. I. Dayton, Ohio: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc., 1969.

The Open Classroom

One approach to the teaching of young children that is receiving a great deal of attention in U. S. schools has become generally known as "The Open Classroom." One of the best of the articles which have appeared recently on this subject is by Beatrice and Ronald Gross in THE SATURDAY REVIEW of May 16, 1970. The following is a brief summary:

"The Open Classroom" is a term being used more and more frequently to describe a new approach to the teaching of children which seems to be "highly effective under a variety of circumstances for children between the ages of five and twelve." Based on relatively recent research and theories concerning how children learn, the approach has received increasing support from educators here and in England. Introduced originally in a few British Infant Schools, it has spread throughout the British school system since World War II; and in the last five years in this country it has been tried in both rural and inner-city schools in a number of states. Among other sponsors here are the Ford Foundation and the Office of Economic Opportunity, which in 1970 opened twelve training centers for teachers in their Follow Through program.

There are four main operating principals which help to determine the characteristics of learning in an open classroom. The first of these is decentralization of the room itself. To achieve a

maximum of flexibility in the use of available space, the room is usually divided into several learning centers; and children work in these centers, on the floor, or even outside the classroom. These rooms have no "up front," no center of activity around the teacher's desk, and no particular arrangement of children's tables and chairs.

Such fluid spatial arrangements serve to promote the second operating principal, which is freedom of the children to explore the room and to choose their own activities. "Each child uses the room differently, according to his own interests, concerns, and feelings on a particular day." Some teachers begin with an informal meeting of the entire group where activities of the previous day might be reported and discussed or other items of interest to the whole class might be presented. Then the children scatter, each to his own choice of activity. While one may wish to complete work the teacher has assigned him, another may choose to read, paint, type, visit, or play alone or with friends in some sort of physical activity. When the child has decided what he is going to be doing, he hangs his name in the appropriate spot on the "Activity Chart." This large chart lists all the possible activities in the classroom, illustrates them with pictures, and provides space beside each activity for the names of those engaged in it at the moment.

Whatever the child chooses to do, we will find the third principal operating - provision of an abundance of learning resources. Tools, art media, games, books, puzzles, and other visual and tactile aids abound in each learning center, whether it be math, science, music, or some other topic for exploration and discovery.

The fourth principal, guidance on an individual basis, allows the teacher and aids to work with a very few children at a time or perhaps only one. The basic assumption that "children want to learn and will learn in their fashion" frees the teacher to give most of the children the responsibility of determining their own activities while she devotes her time and attention to assisting and encouraging individuals in their efforts to achieve "mastery and understanding" of a particular subject. She may have noticed that someone was neglecting a certain area of learning or that he needed special help in music or math, so she takes him aside and works with him and others who need similar assistance until they can again move ahead in that particular area on their own.

A device which enables both the child and the teacher to evaluate his activities and to trace his progress is a diary. Daily entries record successes or problems encountered and serve as a means of communication with the teacher. Excerpts from a few en-

tries illustrate some of the uses to which a diary might be put:

> They (turtles) tried to climb over the side of the box.
>
> I'll do my math tomorrow. Okay?
>
> I can read words, but I can't break them down.
>
> We're making a book of fables.
>
> We talked a lot about . . . how (our water tower) got flooded by Jimmy . . .

The wide range of activities noted in the diaries indicate the "general atmosphere of excitement" that prevails in such a classroom, as well as "respect for and the trust in the child" that is basic to such a program. On the other hand, however, many observers - parents and educators alike - find it difficult to determine what learning is going on at a particular time and doubt that such an atmosphere promotes "serious work." They wonder, too, about costs, problems, and tests.

Initial costs to equip a classroom and give additional training to teachers and aids appear to be more than some schools can bear. It has been estimated that a first year investment of $36 per child would be necessary to furnish a classroom with the elaborate equipment that would be desirable. Much of it would last a number of years, though, and future expenditures would be fairly low. Personnel costs could be kept at a minimum by using older students and parents as aids. "But," say the authors, "like good buys, it can often be least afforded by those who need it most."

Two problems that concern educators are "the fad psychology of educational reform," and the fear of "'chaos' and disregard of the children." The tendency to join the rush to adopt any innovation without really understanding it or giving it "time to evolve and mature" gives rise to failure, disillusionment, and the ultimate abandonment of something that could have been of value had it been approached more cautiously. And the thin line between "chaos" and the "self-conscious freedom" of the classroom depends upon the "diligent planning and individual diagnoses by the teachers and the intellectual and sensuous richness of the prepared environment . . . . (and to lack) these strengths is to invite mere mindlessness and frustration."

On the question of tests, pressure from educators and parents to measure the progress of children in open classrooms is much greater in the United States than in England. However, proponents of

this type of teaching claim that "our new understanding of how children learn and grow makes the present standardized tests obsolete." Even so, point out the authors, "The available evidence indicates that, even measured by the present tests, Open Classroom children progress normally in reading and arithmetic scores," and that they show higher comprehension in math and higher interest levels in reading and writing. In response to the demand for more adequate testing, work is now being done to evolve tests that will measure the special objectives of the open classroom approach - "original thinking, independency, and creativity."

One evidence of the accomplishments of this approach is a report made in 1967 for the Central Advisory Council for Education of Great Britain. Known as the Plowden Report, it is a comprehensive examination of the state of primary education in Great Britain. According to this study,

> one third of the primary schools had already dispensed with a fixed curriculum, a teacher-dominated unified classroom, and narrowly focused one-way teaching measured by tests, and replaced them with . . . . emphasis on each child's interests and style, lots of gabble among the kids, an abundance of concrete materials, and a teacher who stimulates and sometimes steps back.

The interest of American educators in the Plowden Report was aroused by Joseph Featherstone in a series of three articles in the NEW REPUBLIC in late 1967. By 1969, teams of educators were thronging to England to study the system. There was renewed and expanded interest in the works of Jean Piaget, whose psychological experiments with child learning formed the base from which "the open classroom" approach developed. (See Evelyn Hatch's discussion of Piaget in this issue.)

Spread of the open classroom in this country is accelerating rapidly. In New York City and Philadelphia alone, over seventy-five teachers were trying the method in 1970, and through grants from the Ford Foundation and the federal Follow Through program, the Educational Development Center in Newton, Massachusetts, was providing advice and materials for over one hundred teachers in several states.

The future of the open classroom in America and whether it can "transform American primary education" seems, according to the authors, to depend mainly on a kind of trust which may be developing, but of which they see little evidence in schools today:

> Teachers must trust children's imagination, feelings, curiosity, and natural desire to explore and understand

INFORMATION EXCHANGE

NAVAJO AREA ORIENTATION

An orientation program for new BIA teachers in the Navajo Area was held at Wingate High School August 9 through August 20. Teachers of public and parochial schools in the area were also invited to participate.

A pre-planning committee determined the general content of the entire program and selected those who were to be responsible for developing the various aspects of the cultural component. Then, under the direction of Louise S. Bonnell, the orientation staff met one week in advance to plan in detail the general lectures, the class sessions, and the outside activities. The program had two main emphases: one, providing the new teachers with a basic background in the culture and tribal organization of the Navajo people; and two, providing an introduction to the theory and methods of second-language teaching. The main goal of the orientation program is to enable the new teachers to recognize and deal more effectively with the special problems of children who are culturally and linguistically different.

General lectures on Indian education and tribal organization were given by well-known authorities in these fields. The classes in Navajo culture and language were taught by an all-Navajo staff. Those participants interested in linguistics - specifically, in details of Navajo and English phonology and syntax - were given the opportunity to attend a special class in contrastive analysis taught by Dr. Robert Young. Group discussions on the teaching of English were headed by Dr. Gina Harvey, Dr. Lois McIntosh, and Dr. William Slager. The English program also included demonstrations of model lessons in peer-teaching situations.

A high point of this year's sessions was "Navajo Day." On this day, staff members wore authentic Navajo dress; morning sessions were devoted to the "Role of a Navajo Woman," "Cultural Conflicts," and "Navajo Mental Health." The afternoon was devoted to demonstrations of rug weaving, silversmithing, pottery making, etc. At

the end of the school day, the staff and participants went to the nearby village of McGaffey, where they had a typical Navajo dinner with mutton stew, fry bread and Navajo tea. During the evening the participants attended a traditional Navajo wedding and took part in a square dance which followed the wedding ceremony.

COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP

University of California Santa Cruz

During the month of August, thirty-eight BIA language arts teachers attended a Communications Workshop at the University of California at Santa Cruz. The two-week workshop, under the direction of Mrs. T. D. Allen, was planned to provide these teachers with first-hand experiences in communicating through writing and the visual arts, especially drama and photography. From the first day of the workshop, the teachers were asked to think of themselves as students, to participate in their classes as they would expect their own students to participate during the school year. During the two-week sessions all of the teachers were encouraged to write poetry, to give dramatic improvisations, and to prepare both still and motion picture sequences. Preparation involved thinking in terms of story, visual presentations, sequencing scenes, photographing, directing, and acting.

All members of the workshop took part actively in the three courses that were offered. The writing course was taught by William E. Stafford, poet and professor at Lewis and Clark College; the drama course was given by Glenda Dickerson of Howard University; and the course in photography was offered by Steven D. Barley of the Eastman Kodak Company and by Harry Berendzen of the BIA Washington office. The following descriptions were taken from the workshop program:

A Way of Writing

A course in a way of writing that relies on a student's own voice and experience, with primary attention on expression and communication as the finding of opportunity rather than the avoiding of errors. "Any student who can talk already has the most important skills needed for writing. As teachers, we can rely on these powers already evident and can lend our aid in sustaining the

confidence needed for transferring that fluency into written form."

Improvisational Drama

Introduction to use of the improvisational method in the teaching of theatre communication skills, including structure, scheduling, evaluation, escalation, and follow-through. Improvisational training, focusing on basic theatre games and exercises. Emphasis on specifics that can be taken back to students.

The Visual Skills and Arts of Communication

The use of photography and cinematography as an adjunct to learning other disciplines and as doorways for self examination and realization.

The schedule was a demanding one. Classes were scheduled throughout the mornings and afternoons. At evening sessions the participants viewed movies carefully selected to represent important developments in the history of cinema, in possibilities for school uses of the camera, and in the do's and dont's of BIA films. Despite this rigorous schedule, the participants appeared to be as enthusiastic on the last day of the workshop as they were on the first. A number of factors appeared to contribute to the enthusiastic response: the careful planning and organization; the informal classes, which provided adequate opportunities for the free and relaxed interchange of ideas; and the setting itself. The Santa Cruz campus, built in a redwood forest and overlooking the Pacific, proved to be an ideal location for group interaction and discussion.

Shortly after the workshop got under way, the participants suggested that samples of their writing be brought together in a small book, one that they themselves would plan and produce. The result is an attractive collection of poetry and prose under the title REPORTING TO CRAZY HORSE. Mr. Ferrin Allen, of the Intermountain School in Brigham City, was in charge of the preparation. This booklet not only served as a pleasant reminder of the two weeks spent together; it also gave many of the teachers new insight and skills in how school publications can be designed and planned.

The Santa Cruz workshop is only one part of a larger project which emphasizes the development of creative expression in language arts programs for American Indian Students. The idea for the project grew out of Mrs. Allen's experiences while teaching

creative writing at the Institute of American Indian Arts in Santa Fe. As she worked with students, she became convinced that their greatest need was to be fully aware of themselves, of their potential as persons. At the same time, Mrs. Allen also was convinced that this self understanding could be most quickly and effectively achieved through talking and writing about oneself and through other forms of creative expressions such as drama and art. Emphasis on writing, she feels, is of particular importance, since to date the literary tradition of the American Indian has been largely an oral one. While an oral tradition can transmit values within a culture, it does not provide the opportunity for communicating across cultures.

Because of the remarkable success of her writing course at IAIA, Mrs. Allen proposed an extension of the creative writing emphasis to other secondary schools within the BIA system. The extension of the program to other schools began in 1968. During the next academic year (1971-72), Mrs. Allen will visit about twenty high schools, conferring with teachers of the language arts courses and with students who have expressed a strong interest in writing, doing demonstration teaching, and reading and making suggestions on student manuscripts, and introducing extensions of the ongoing writing program into the visual media.

Though her schedule is a flexible one, varying according to the specific needs of teachers and students in each school, she has for two years gone into schools on a quiet, low-key format:

1) Two or three days are spent sitting in on classes to provide pupils and teachers a getting-acquainted time with their visitor and to observe pupil-teacher rapport, the textbooks in use, and the opportunities for expression given pupils.

2) Class observation is followed by the preparation of a number of suggestions for writing activities based on the material currently being emphasized.

3) If the teacher requests it, Mrs. Allen takes the class for one or more sessions and demonstrates ways to get pupils started on communicating with others through writing (then, as the program is expanding, through acting and through the use of cameras).

4) Mrs. Allen also works directly with student writings that are submitted to her - making criticisms, comments, and suggestions on the manuscripts themselves and conferring with students. She continues to work with inter-

ested students by correspondence throughout the school year.

5) One day is usually spent in private interviews with students who have shown a keen interest in developing their writing skill. At this time, Mrs. Allen snaps a photograph of each student. Later, as they work by correspondence, she is able to remind herself of his personality and appearance and thus work on a more personal basis.

To date, administrators, teachers, and students have been pleased with the program. And there is even more tangible evidence of the results of this new emphasis on writing. Student writings are constantly appearing in textbooks, magazines, and other trade publications. An anthology of poetry is to appear in the Spring of 1972. Three volumes of student writings known as ARROW I, ARROW II, and ARROW III have already appeared. Next year the development of creative expression will be extended to the visual arts, especially acting and the use of cameras as means of personal expression.

In the past decade, the BIA has been taking a careful look at its language arts programs and has given special attention to the development of materials and the use of techniques that will help the American Indian Student use English accurately and effectively. Much of the emphasis to date, however, has been on the students in the early grades, students who must master the basics of English phonology and syntax and learn the fundamental skills of reading and writing. Mrs. Allen's program, which emphasizes writing as creative self-expression, adds an important new dimension to the planning of the language curriculum in BIA schools.

TEACHER TRAINING IN THE NAVAJO AREA

Two recommendations made in the Report of the Evaluation of English as a Second Language Programs in Navajo Area Schools, compiled and edited by David P. Harris for the team of evaluators from TESOL who worked with the Navajo Area during 1969-70 in evaluating English language programs, dealt with the need for more and regular training of teachers and the need to alleviate immediately the resentment over the imposition of one set of materials and one uniform time period for daily ESL instruction. To follow through on these two recommendations, these actions have been taken.

Language arts curriculum guidelines which incorporate a wide variety of suggested activities designed to meet universal needs of children in the areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing are replacing the one set of materials as the base of instruction in the language arts. Revised Instructional Guidelines for Navajo Area Elementary Schools, which set forth instructional policy, give schools much more freedom in setting time schedules and place emphasis on the necessity for adapting materials and activities to the needs of the pupils. Structure being taught in the language arts is to be reinforced in other subject areas, and content from other disciplines is to be incorporated in the teaching of the language arts.

An organized training program at the school, agency, and Area levels is being developed to provide needed education and training for teachers and language arts specialists. At the school level, time has been set aside each month for teacher training. One agency is holding a week-long workshop for new teachers to follow through on efforts exerted during the Navajo Area orientation program for new teachers. The Area is assuming responsibility for monthly training sessions for all new teachers to reinforce training given them during Orientation. School superintendents have been encouraged to grant leaves of absence to teachers who demonstrate potential and exceptional interest in furthering their

education in teaching the language arts to speakers of another language.

A workshop was held at Northern Arizona University during the summer of 1971 to evaluate the first year's use of the language arts guidelines and to begin the development of structural, situational, and prefamiliarization objectives to augment the speaking phase of the guidelines. Reactions to the guidelines were found to be highly favorable. Work done by the "Sequencing Committee" has resulted in the same kind of excitement and enthusiasm being exhibited that is observed with teachers using the CITE materials.

The rationale for teaching the language arts to Navajo children through the use of guidelines and the newly developed objectives indicate the need for the following essential changes:

1. Striving for teacher control of the teaching-learning situation.
2. Focusing on structure rather than pattern.
3. Stressing flexibility and creativity.
4. Providing freedom of choice and decision-making regarding the manner in which a specific objective is taught.
5. Providing for continuous progression in learning, in amounts with which young Navajo children can cope.
6. Striving for cue-response rather than model-mimic.
7. Recognizing individual differences of children and encouraging sub-grouping to meet individual needs.
8. Stressing natural language rather than sterile repetition.
9. Emphasizing the importance of transfer and the need to:
    a. Reinforce in other subject areas what is being learned in the language arts.
    b. Select context, vocabulary and activities, for accomplishing the objectives, from other subject areas.
10. Using a spiraling rather than a paradigmatic approach.
11. Teaching to develop competency equated with children's capabilities and maturity rather than attempting to get "mastery".

It will take time to test, evaluate and refine the work being

done, and it is too early to predict results, but learning based on the objectives can be measured, and the objectives do provide a means for holding educators accountable for what they are doing for children in this area. Of most importance is the fact that what is being done is motivated by a genuine desire to improve the teaching of the language arts to Navajo children.

Another recommendation of the TESOL Report pertained to training "teacher-specialists" in TESOL so that they in turn could help other teachers to understand the why and the how of teaching ESL. To follow through on this recommendation, a four-week workshop was held at Northern Arizona University for seventeen language specialists and teachers who had exhibited potential in the field. The objective of the workshop was to develop competence in working with other teachers to improve their capabilities in teaching the language arts to Navajo children. Participants earned four hours of credit from Northern Arizona University. (More details concerning this seminar may be found in the report by Gina Harvey in this issue.)

A basic knowledge of how the English language functions is a minimal requirement for teaching English as a second language which many teachers graduating from teacher-training institutions appear to lack. Consequently, the burden placed on the Navajo Area to educate teachers (and specialists) to a degree that they can translate knowledge of how the English language functions into accurate, appropriate, and motivating lessons is great. Such training as was given at Northern Arizona University is a small step taken to close the gap between what teachers know and what they need to know.

A larger step in this direction will be taken during the summer of 1972 when a five-week workshop will be held at Northern Arizona University to educate teachers in modern grammar and applied linguistics, and to train them in analyzing materials and adapting them to the use and needs of Navajo children. This workshop will be conducted for three hundred teachers, and for supervisors and administrators who are interested in attending, and will be under the direction of the Navajo Area Division of Education.

Faralie Spell
Navajo Area Office
Window Rock, Arizona

A WORKSHOP IN THE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH FOR LANGUAGE ARTS SPECIALISTS IN B.I.A. (NAVAJO) SCHOOLS

Seventeen Language Arts Specialists from various B.I.A. schools on the Navajo Reservation met for four weeks last summer (June 28 - July 23, 1971) on the campus of Northern Arizona University in Flagstaff to receive intensive instruction in the structure of the English language. The workshop was directed by Dr. Gina P. Harvey of the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.

Funds for the program were provided by the Navajo Area Office of Education at Window Rock, Arizona. Dr. Harvey had the assistance of resource persons such as professors William Slager, linguistics, University of Utah; P. David Seaman, linguistics, Northern Arizona University; Irvy Goossen, Navajo language, Northern Arizona University; and Michael Massarotti, educational evaluation, University of Wyoming. Mrs. Faralie Spell, Chief of the Branch of Curriculum and Instruction, Navajo Area, participated in the implementation of the program and nelped keep its focus on the specific needs of Navajo children in B.I.A. schools.

The workshop was planned and conducted as part of a long-range program aimed at increasing the effectiveness of language instruction to Navajo children. A good teacher of English needs to know how the language functions, and he needs to translate such knowledge into accurate, appropriate, and exciting lessons. A basic knowledge of how the English language functions - in other words, a basic acquaintance with the grammatical structure of English - is not provided by most teacher-training curricula and must be supplied through in-service education.

The Flagstaff workshop was an attempt to develop such competence in some of the specialists already employed in various schools and agencies of the Navajo Area. Some specialists received practically their first introduction to Modern English Grammar, and as a result are becoming better able to explain the scope and se-

quence of their ESL and language textbooks, and to suggest appropriate modifications of context and vocabulary. Other specialists had already received some instruction in linguistics and modern grammar; during the workshop they refined and updated their knowledge, and then turned their attention to the ways and means of putting their competence to practical use.

For the course work completed during the four weeks the participants were able to earn four semester hours of resident graduate credit from Northern Arizona University. Upon returning to their various agencies and schools the specialists plan to put their newly-acquired knowledge to use in assisting the teachers. Either informally or in formal in-service sessions, they will help the teachers identify the syntactical objectives of their ESL texts and understand the teaching points of each lesson. The teachers will then be encouraged to plan their actual lessons more creatively as well as more effectively, that is, keeping in mind each grammatical objective they may replace the activities and vocabulary suggested in the textbook with others more appropriate and relevant to their own students.

Gina P. Harvey
University of New Mexico

BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR AMERICAN INDIANS

(CURRICULUM BULLETIN NUMBER THREE)

edited by
Edward A. Tennant

During October a new BIA publication rolled off the presses. After some delay in order to bring the study up to date in the rapidly changing world of bilingual education, Curriculum Bulletin Number Three, BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR AMERICAN INDIANS has now appeared.

The contents are three-pronged. Part One is both the historical and general approach to bilingual education on the Indian scene. It includes: "A History of Language Instruction in American Indian Schools," by Arnold Leibowitz; "Two Statements on Bilingualism," by Bruce A. Gaarder and TESOL; "A Summary of Pertinent Research in Bilingual Education," by L. Madison Coombs; "A history of Bilingual Education in BIA Schools," by Evelyn Bauer; and "The Bilingual Education Act and the American Indian," by Edward A. Tennant.

Part Two is more particular in nature and reports approaches to applying theory in real situations. This section includes: "What Classroom Teachers Should Know About Bilingual Education," by Miles V. Zintz; "Literacy in the Vernacular: The Case of Navajo," by Bernard Spolsky and Wayne Holm; plus the results of two planning conferences for bilingual kindergarten programs for Navajo children by Sirarpi Ohannessian.

Part Three deals with books and articles on bilingualism arranged by category. It contains an extensive select bibliography and numerous abstracts compiled by Harry Berendzen.

Two appendices on Language Terms and Ways to Describe Language conclude the bulletin, which should be on the reading list of any-

one who is interested in bilingual education for Indian children. "If these children," writes BIA Director of Education, James E. Hawkins in the foreword, "are able to work in their own frame of reference, with their own familiar language and customs, there is every reason to hope that their early experience in school will be a happy and fruitful endeavor."

Copies of the bulletin may be had by writing to:

Mr. Robert Rebert
Language Arts Branch
Division of Educational Planning and Development
P. O. Box 1788
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87103

A KINDERGARTEN CURRICULUM GUIDE FOR INDIAN CHILDREN: A BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL APPROACH (CURRICULUM BULLETIN NUMBER FIVE)

Edited by
Mariana Jessen

The development of this comprehensive guide for teachers in the new BIA kindergartens is the result of cooperation between several groups concerned with the education of young American Indian children. Among those making extensive contributions are the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the Bank Street College of Education, BIA personnel on local and national levels, Tribal leaders and parents, and the U.S. Indian Health Service. "The chief purpose," as stated in the introduction, "is to establish a broad base of sound principles and philosophy of education for young children with some ideas, experiences, materials and resources for implementation, from which each school is free to move in appropriate directions, relevant to the particular child, his family and community."

Content of the guide is divided into five parts: Part I sets forth the approach to early childhood education that has been taken by the BIA. Part II deals with planning for efficient use of available space and materials and with suggestions for making or acquiring additional equipment and supplies. Part III, Curriculum Experiences, provides ideas for concept development in the areas of language, social science, mathematics, natural and physical science, music, art, health and safety, and food service. Part IV is devoted to such supporting services as parental involvement, supervision, social services, and health programs. Part V is a bibliography that includes films and addresses for additional resource material.

Kindergarten teachers, both old and new, will find this a convenient and resourceful reference as they develop their own curriculum, adapted to their own children and community.

AN ANALYTICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY OF NAVAJO READING MATERIALS

(CURRICULUM BULLETIN NUMBER TEN)

by
Bernard Spolsky, Agnes Holm, and Penny Murphy

This Curriculum Bulletin is an expanded and revised "Progress Report Number Three" of the Navajo Reading Study at the University of New Mexico. (See the report of the Reading Study in the Spring, 1970 issue of this newsletter.) As one of their first tasks, the staff of the Reading Study began a collection of materials dealing with the Navajo language and culture, which they brought together in their progress report. To this original work has been added "A Brief History of Navajo Literacy," by Penny Murphy. In addition, the number of names listed in the Author Index has been increased to 91, and the annotated entries in the bibliography now number 141. The following sample entry indicates the annotation system:

Navajo Reading Materials No. 20

Author:	Robert A. Roessel, Jr., Dillon Platero, Editors. (Illustrated by George Mitchell).
Title:	Coyote Stories of the Navaho People
Prepared:	Navajo Curriculum Center, Rough Rock Demonstration School, Rough Rock Rural Branch, Chinle, Arizona 86503
Publisher:	DINE, Inc.
Available:	See above.
Date:	1968 Edition: Price: $3.50
Format:	141 pages, 6" x 9", hard cover, illustrated.
Language:	English
Description:	A supplementary reader which presents aspects of Navajo culture.

The authors, knowing that the present list is incomplete, encourage those consulting the bibliography to contribute additional items.

ARROW III

The BIA Creative Writing Project, under the direction of Mrs. Terry Allen, has for the past three years sponsored a prose and poetry contest for the students participating in the program. The winning entries each year have then been published in attractively bound volumes entitled ARROW I (1969) and ARROW II (1970). (See the report in the Spring, 1971, issue of this newsletter.)

ARROW III, the product of the third annual contest, has now been published and is another choice collection of prose and poetry written by Indian students. In addition to having his work published, each winner was presented with a personal gift by Miss Mary Lois Mamer, whose interest in American Indian youth led to the printing of the series by the Koehoe-Mamer Foundation. This book, like the previous volumes, represents the top quality work of the BIA high schools in which the creative writing program was conducted during 1970-71. Thirteen high schools are represented; the twenty-one poems and seven prose pieces are the work of twenty-three students, members of fifteen different tribes.

Growth of the project from the nine high schools initially participating in the program in 1969 to the twenty-one participating in 1971, is an indication of the success of the project in encouraging and developing writing skills and has no doubt made competition keener. At the present time, the students, the teachers, and the director are all concentrating on the 1971-72 program and the production of ARROW IV. We are looking forward to it!

(For information about the ARROW books, address Mrs. Terry Allen, Box 2775, Carmel, California 93921.)

AMERICAN INDIAN AND ESKIMO PROJECTS FUNDED UNDER TITLE VII

As Announced by the U.S. Office of Education

Established projects:

Language	First Funded	Name and address of Local Educ. Assn.	Director
Yuk	1970	State Operated Schools District I 659 International Airport Anchorage, Alaska 99502	Mr. Gary Holthaus
Navajo	1970	DINE, Inc. Rough Rock Demonstration School Chinle, Arizona 86503	Dr. E. Roby Leighton
Spanish Pomo	1969	Ukiah Unified School District School and Henry Streets Ukiah, California 95482 (Note: Pomo Indian children participate in a bicultural program.)	Mr. Jose de la Pena
Ute Navajo, Spanish	1970	Montezuma-Dolores Board of Cooperative Services 121 E. First Street Post Office Drawer 1420 Cortez, Colorado 81321	Mr. Robert L. Werner
Crow, Northern Cheyenne	1970	Hardin Public Schools District 17-H 522 North Center Avenue Hardin, Montana 59034	Mr. John Dracon
Spanish, Keresan	1969	Grants Municipal Schools P.O. Box 8 Grants, New Mexico 87020	Mr. Al Arvizu

Language	First Funded	Name and address of Local Educ. Assn.	Director
Choctaw	1970	McCurtain County Superintendent of Schools Idabel, Oklahoma 74745	Mr. Pierce Martin
Cherokee	1969	Cherokee County Superintendent of Schools Tahlequah, Oklahoma 74464	Mr. Herbert Bacon
Navajo	1969	San Juan School District P. O. Box 218 Monticello, Utah 84535	Mr. Lynn Lee

New and proposed projects:

Language Spoken	Location	Name of person and address to contact
Cree	Montana	Mr. Robert Hurie Rocky Boy Rte. Box Elder, Montana 59521
Navajo	Arizona	Miss Marie de Carli, Director Navajo Area Office Bureau of Indian Affairs Window Rock, Arizona
Navajo	Arizona	Dr. E. W. Willink Rock Point Boarding School Chinle, Arizona 86503
Navajo	New Mexico	Mr. Robert Chiago, Director Ramah Navajo High School P. O. Box 268 Ramah, New Mexico 87571
Navajo & Zuni	New Mexico	Gallup-McKinley County Schools 700 South Boardman Drive P. O. Box 1318 Gallup, New Mexico

Language Spoken	Location	Name of person and address to contact
Labato-Sioux	South Dakota	Mr. Hiran E. Oiney, Acting Superintendent Bureau of Indian Affairs Loneman School Board Ogala, South Dakota 57764
Passamoquoddy	Maine	Meredith Ring, Supervisor Indian Education P. O. Box 291 Calais, Maine 04619

LOCAL RESOURCE MATERIALS FOR TEACHERS

Navajo Education Newsletter

Responding to the need for better communication among employees of the Navajo Area Education Division, the division is now publishing a monthly NAVAJO EDUCATION NEWSLETTER, edited by Dick Hardwick. The first issue, dated August, 1971, reports Area wide educational activities in such diversified fields as bilingual workshops, school building and remodeling, student employment, scholarships, teacher training, etc. It also features an interview with Area Director Anthony P. Lincoln and an editorial by Dr. William J. Benham, Jr., Assistant Area Director for Education.

The extensive and detailed coverage of this first issue is a promising indication to approximately 4000 education employees in the area that they will now have available a means of keeping better informed of the activities and achievements of their fellow workers. Although its primary intent is "to improve internal communication," the new publication will also be of value to people outside the reservation who are interested in any phase of Navajo education.

Publications of the Nevada State Department of Education

In many states having a high enrollment of Indian children in the public schools the State Department of Education provides special resource materials to aid the teachers. For this issue we should like to mention three items prepared by the Nevada State Department of Education:

1. Nevada State Department of Education. OUR DESERT FRIENDS. A publication of the Federal Relations and Programs Branch. Reprint 1969.

   This book contains thirteen stories about the collection and preparation of native plants to be used as food, medicine, or clothing by the Indians of Nevada. The

stories are interestingly told for children and are illustrated with drawings of the plants discussed. Included is a list of plants with their common English name, their Indian name, and their scientific name.

2. Charles H. Poehlman, ed. KNOW YOUR NEVADA INDIANS. Carson City: Nevada State Department of Education. Reprint 1970.

   With the objective of aiding people to "gain more insight and understanding of our native Nevadans," the committee serving in the preparation of this book discusses the Indian in relation to his home and family, his religion, his economy, his education, his health, his government, and the law. Additional features are a list of contemporary problems, a list of cultural differences between Indians and non-Indians, a six-page bibliography, and a list of resource references.

3. Charles H. Poehlman, ed. BOOKS ABOUT INDIANS. Carson City: Nevada State Department of Education, 1971.

   Contains reading lists under the following headings:
   - I. A Graded Reading List for the Pre-school Through the Sixth Grades. (18 p.)
   - II. A Graded Reading List for the Seventh Through the Twelfth Grades (19 p.)
   - III. An Ungraded Reading List for Elementary and Secondary Education (5 p.)

Newspapers

A good source of information and materials for enriching and updating the cultural content of language lessons is the local newspaper. Two that have come to our attention are:

1. NATIVE NEWS AND BIA BULLETIN, edited by Joan E. Fisher. Published monthly by the Juneau Area Office, BIA. Free to persons requesting it. Address:

   Native News and BIA Bulletin Editor
   Juneau Area Office
   P. O. Box 3-8000
   Juneau, Alaska 99801

2. THE NATIVE NEVADAN. Official Newspaper of the Inter-Tribal Council of Nevada, Inc. Published monthly. Free to all Indian people. $2.50 per year to non-Indians. Address:

   The Native Nevadan
   1995 E. 2nd Street
   Reno, Nevada 89502

Navajo Bibliography

J. Lee Correll, Editha L. Watson, and David M. Brugge. NAVAJO BIBLIOGRAPHY WITH SUBJECT INDEX. Research Report No. 2, 2 vols., rev. ed., Window Rock, Ariz.: Research Section, Navajo Parks & Recreation, The Navajo Tribe, 1969.

Quoted from the Foreword:

> This volume is a revised edition of the December, 1967 issue. It not only includes some 2,000 additional references, but also a Subject Index comprised, for the most part, from topics suggested by the titles of the entries.
>
> As stated in the original [edition] . . . no attempt at selectivity has been made. All available references to the Navajo people, their land and environment, regardless of source, are a part of this book. These include historical, ethnographic, biographical, technical, popular, and fictional works, as well as archival and congressional materials, newspaper accounts, articles from journals and magazines, books, pamphlets, manuscripts, and technical papers from government and Navajo Tribal files. No attempt has been made to evaluate, annotate, or categorize, and an inclusion of an entry is no criterion of its accuracy or importance. . . . It is hoped that Navajos, historians, social workers, teachers, and others who share an interest in the Navajo people . . . will also find the book's contents useful. [Contains "numerous references, often from obscure or specialized technical journals."]

Vol. I (p. 1-326) is listed alphabetically by author or institution, including a long list of anonymous items. Vol. II (pp. 327-394) is entitled "Subject Index to the Navajo Bibliography," and lists author and date of all the items in Vol. I under appropriate subject headings.

MATERIALS

THE AMERICAN ENGLISH SERIES

The Original Edition

Pauline M. Rojas, Director. AMERICAN ENGLISH SERIES. Boston: D.C. Heath, 1955.

This series is commonly referred to as the "Fries-Rojas materials" because the late Charles C. Fries served as the master consultant on the writers' team in Puerto Rico. It was for more than a decade the only comprehensive set of materials for use with children from about the fourth grade level through high school. The authors had in mind Puerto Rican children who presumably had already learned to read and write in Spanish by the time these materials were to be introduced to them. Another apparent assumption was that the students would, for some time at least, continue to receive much of all of their instruction in Spanish in subjects other than English. In short, an EFL rather than an ESL setting was the situation for which these materials were designed.

The aural-oral approach to second language learning is emphasized throughout this series, but, as the authors make clear in the preface to each of the five teacher's manuals, this does not mean that the language arts of reading and writing are neglected. On the contrary, the writing assignments in the whole series amount to a carefully sequenced course in composition.

The organization of structural sequence and contextual setting, which includes the selection of content vocabulary, is extremely neat from the point of view of the need for English to be used in school at the particular assumed grade levels. Much of the content for the English exercises, for example, is clearly taken from the content of the social studies, science, and mathematics taught in Puerto Rico at about the level at which a particular set of units of the series is assumed to be taught. This enables

an alert school staff to correlate the teaching of English with the teaching of subject matter other than English. Other content is taken from what is assumed to interest students in their out-of-school life. Transfer of learning is thus facilitated.

The suggested activities for practicing listening, speaking, reading, and composition are well distributed and clear enough for any teacher who is willing to take the trouble of reading them carefully. But the organizational principles for the structural content are not easily perceived by the ever-hurried elementary classroom teacher who has never had any training in ESL. This is true in particular for the first two books (the first teacher's manual). There is no clear index or table of contents of the teaching points of each unit, no indication to the teacher of a hierarchy of importance among the teaching points. For example, there is no evaluation of why certain content vocabulary was selected for teaching sentences of a certain type, or why the structural sequence was developed as it was. The authors seemed to have assumed a linguistic sophistication in the ordinary classroom teacher that is unrealistic.

Another feature that is missing for teachers is unit tests that might be used as pre- and/or post tests. While it is true that some of the suggested "application activities" that make up the fourth part of each unit in the first two books could serve as such tests, this is often not understood by some teachers.

The experience with the series in the Navajo Area, where it had been selected as the basic text in 1967 when TESL became a formally adopted feature of instruction in the B.I.A. schools, has been that even after four or five day training sessions in TESL in general, of which some time was spent on examining this series, all too many teachers and supervisors still failed to perceive the teaching points of many of the units. This was even the case with the books where the teaching points are explicitly summarized for teacher as well as for students. The topical rather than the structural content tended to be taken to be all important. Teachers therefore often felt free to deviate from the structural sequence and improvise, thereby failing to have the students acquire the all important sentence structure. It may well be unrealistic to expect the teacher to acquire the expected familiarity with the ESL field merely by giving him a set of materials in his hands and no more than a few days training.

The Navajo experience has further been that a) those teachers who understand the message of the materials had no trouble in making appropriate supplements and adaptating them for use with Navajo children, often at different levels than for which the materials

were intended; that such teachers expressed their satisfaction with the materials and achieved satisfactory progress in their students; b) those teachers who taught at about the age/grade level for which the materials were written and who followed the materials' suggestions, whether they fully comprehended the rationale or not, were also satisfied with the materials as they saw their students make some definite progress.

The New Edition

Adrian L. Hull, (general editor). AMERICAN ENGLISH SERIES. Boston: D.C. Heath, 1965.

Ten years after the first edition of the American English Series the D.C. Heath Company came out with a new edition. Only the first two books are on the market. The authors, Puerto Rican educators, have supplied this series with the much needed index of structural content. They also clearly had children younger than fourth graders in mind when they selected the topical content, which, of course, is more up to date than the older edition. The new edition does not purport to teach what reading and writing in an alphabetic writing system is, any more than did the Fries-Rojas edition. Reading and writing activities are included, as they are in the first edition. The deviations from the structural sequence of the first edition seem to have been imspired by the always strongly felt need of the classroom teacher to enable the students to transfer the learnings in English to other classroom situations as soon as possible.

The past tense and the use of the expletive "there," for example, are presented much earlier in this series than in the older edition. This change may be welcomed by many teachers eager to utilize experience stories in their teaching, which almost always calls for the use of the past tense. The total flow of structural sequence in the new edition, however, seems to have made so many concessions to these ever pressing demands for immediate usefulness, that it appears to be erratic. In the first book, for example, "this," is introduced first in Unit Seven in connection with numbers and pages, but the rest of the demonstrative system is not developed until seven units later; in the first book one looks in vain for questions beginning with "did" (they are not introduced until Unit Ten of the second book) after statements in the past have been introduced in Unit Thirteen along with "What did. . ." questions. From the standpoint of structural sequencing such separation seems less than elegant; and even from the point of view of immediate usefulness such sequencing seems to fall short of its goal. Yes/no questions in the past seem to be no less

immediately useful to elementary children than What questions.

The Adaptation for Navajo Children

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR NAVAJO BEGINNERS, adapted by Mary Jane Cook, et al. by permission from the Fries AMERICAN ENGLISH SERIES, Book 1, D.C. Heath and Co., 1965. Tucson, Arizona: U. S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, Navajo Area, 1969.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs has received, under contract, from Dr. Mary Jane Cook, an adaptation for use with six and seven year old Navajo children of the first book and the first few units of the second book of the new edition of the American English Series. These materials contain structural overviews of each unit and they also include unit tests. No reading and writing activities are included. The materials come with puppets, a domino game, and a great number of large, colored picture cards. On the whole, for surface appeal to the teacher, these materials cannot compete with most of the more expensively produced commercial materials. They have been tried out in about 20 classrooms after Dr. Cook had met with the teachers in two or three day training sessions. During the school year Dr. Cook observed or met with the teachers twice or three times. Most of the pilot teachers declared themselves satisfied during their years of pilot teaching. The Cook materials are currently in use in a number of classrooms on the Navajo. It is possible that the Navajo Area still has some sets available for teachers or supervisors elsewhere who might take an interest in these materials. Information can be obtained from the B.I.A. Area Office, Education, Window Rock, Arizona 86515.

Elizabeth W. Willink
Rock Point Boarding School
Chinle, Arizona

CORE ENGLISH

Core English, a primary-level oral ESL program from Ginn and Company, is clearly the result of teamwork between linguist and classroom teacher. It is programmed to meet the linguistic needs of early childhood education while incorporating the best of educational theory.

Fun is an element not often programmed into the structure and drill of ESL materials. However, Core English has been developed within an enjoyably creative framework of fun, paired with action and color. At the same time, detailed structure and method is provided to allow for the use of the materials, with relative ease, by classroom teachers or para-professionals who have had no specialized ESL training.

Both levels One and Two of Core English are in kit form, contained in a compact cardboard carrying case which lends itself to use by multiple classrooms or by a traveling teacher. A kit includes a spiral-bound teacher's manual, student workbooks, wallcharts and picture cards, hand puppets, a flannel-board kit, game and song book, and a sing-along record. With the exception of a few readily available pieces of realia and, perhaps, extras requisite to her own creativity, the teacher has the materials necessary for a rich multi-sensory instructional program.

The teacher's manuals are a particular strength of this program. The lesson plans are well detailed and are presented in a format that allows for the visual ease necessary to rapid-pace ESL teaching. There is carefully sequenced introduction of linguistic elements and ample provision for overview and review through varied activities. In vocabulary, emphasis is given to vocabulary of immediate need in the classroom and necessary to classroom instructional concepts. For the teacher who is uncertain of linguistic structure, appendixes are provided that allow her to form a rationale for her ESL teaching and to extend classroom activities. It is only in the area of pronunciation drill that sufficient

emphasis and help, particularly for the inexperienced ESL teacher, is not always provided. It will be necessary for the teacher to build additional drill into the program as she assesses the pronunciation needs of her students.

The workbooks for Levels One and Two maintain the essential oral nature of the program and provide an additional stimulus for eliciting the structures being practiced. Because paper-pencil tasks are limited, they will not meet the traditional workbook concept of classroom teachers beyond the readiness level. When they are used as a bridge between a segregated ESL program and the classroom, their oral-language rationale will need to be clear to the classroom teacher or their usefulness will be limited.

The supplementary contents of the kits are imaginative as well as educationally functional. Pictures are multi-ethnic and depict surroundings to which children can relate. The games, categorized by classroom skills, are extremely varied, and the sing-along records have the "beat" that appeals to children today.

The following sections, quoted from the introduction to the teacher's manual for Level One, provides further information about the special features of this oral program:

> The grammatical points have been carefully selected and sequenced to allow for gradual introduction and constant reinforcement. The acquisition of vocabulary never overshadows the children's need to learn to control the structure of English.
>
> The language has been selected to meet the special needs of young children in a school environment, where such essential concepts as shape and size, color discrimination, and counting must be taught.
>
> The language practice is embedded in contexts which encourage meaningful responses.
>
> The vocabulary for which the children may be held accountable is carefully limited, though provision is made for the addition of other words which the teacher may feel are appropriate to the special needs of his own classroom and to the locality in which the children are living.
>
> The program is ungraded and is flexible enough to fit a variety of school situations. It can be used with a small group of non-English speaking children in a regular classroom; and it can be used in "pull-out" classes, in special all-day intensive classes, in bilingual programs

and in tutorial work.

The lessons have been written with a constant concern that the children use natural and uncontrived language that is appropriate to the context of the classroom activities. Single-word and phrasal answers are encouraged wherever they would normally be used by an English-speaking child, while complete statements are practiced in contexts where they are appropriate, as in talks and explanations. The use of contractions throughout also reflects a concern for natural spoken English.

A clear distinction is maintained between language the children are to use productively and language they need only understand. Within the lessons themselves, language for recognition is identified by the letters TL (Teacher Language). Teacher Language is often anticipatory, presenting for recognition those structures which the child will be required to produce actively in later lessons; in this way extended listening can often precede production.

Language for production is presented just as systematically as language for recognition. But language is not considered productive unless many activities are given with it, leading to spontaneous and unprompted use by the children.

An attempt is made to instill in the children some sensitivity to the differences between formal and informal language - for example, the difference between "Good morning" and "Hi," and between "Sure" and "Certainly."

CORE ENGLISH materials now available (Levels Three and Four will appear in June, 1972) may be obtained in a complete kit which includes twenty workbooks, or items may be purchased separately:

	List Price	Net Price
Level One Kit	$133.28	$99.96
Level Two Kit	117.28	87.96
LANGUAGE GAMES AND SONGS	4.64	3.48
CORE ENGLISH SONGS	8.00	6.00
MORE CORE ENGLISH SONGS	8.00	6.00
Workbooks (package of 5) (available separately)	5.00	3.75

For further information, address:

Ginn and Company
2550 Hanover St.
Palo Alto, California 94304

[William R. Slager, senior author. CORE ENGLISH ONE AND TWO TEACHER'S MANUALS, by William R. Slager and Helen E. Goodrich; LANGUAGE GAMES AND SONGS FOR CORE ENGLISH, by Serafina Krear and Barry Goodrich. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1971.]

Myra H. Castner, Master Teacher, ESL and Reading
Campbell Union School District
Campbell, California

DISTAR LANGUAGE PROGRAM

The Distar Language Program, published by Science Research Associates, consists of two kits, one each for levels I and II. Level I includes six basic presentation books, a storybook, a color book, a teacher's guide, and several transparencies; Level II includes five sequential presentation books and a teacher's guide. Each lesson is amply illustrated, and a materials list for real things from the real world is included in each teacher's guide. This is a no-nonsense, straight forward program designed to teach children to use certain basic concepts and to talk about them in standard English.

Distar is not specifically a second language program. The materials were originally designed at the University of Illinois for children with social dialect problems. Nevertheless, their potential usefulness to ESL teachers should be considered.

Materials. - Distar differs from most English language programs in that it is organized around the concepts that language is used to express rather than around grammatical categories. For example, in Level I each daily lesson of about thirty minutes consists of a presentation from Book A (identity statements and descriptions), a presentation from Book B (action statements and categorization), a presentation from Book C (identity of parts of objects and their relations to the whole), a story from the Storybook (participation stories which reinforce the language lesson), and a Take-home (a picture awarded to the children for their efforts).

The materials in Books A, B and C are treated separately so that children may progress within each area according to their facility; that is, a child may have no trouble with labeling, though he finds naming parts difficult; in this case, he progresses sequentially through Book A, but repeats the crucial part (identified in the program) of Book C. While the material in all three Books is interrelated, they are not mutually dependent for their sequencing.

The Storybook is also worth mentioning: The first story, to be read as the children are developing skills with identity statements, concerns a boy named Tommy and his parrot named Polly. Polly can whistle and talk, but the only thing she can say is, "This is a chair." Tommy shows her a number of different objects, asking, "What is this?" and Polly always answers, "This is a chair." Throughout the story, the teacher asks the children the same questions Tommy asks Polly (the children, of course, are always smarter than the parrot).

In Story Two, Tommy and Polly are again the principals. The teacher reviews the previous story by asking a number of questions with yes or no answers, and a few questions to review the conditions of the story (What can Polly say? This is a chair). In this story, Tommy is sleeping, and a lion comes through the door. Polly is getting more and more excited, but Tommy doesn't wake up. Finally, the parrot screams at the lion, "This is a chair"; and the lion is frightened away. Again, throughout the story (and subsequent stories), the children are involved by questions from the teacher. The stories echo the language and concepts of the current and preceding lessons.

Language. - The program begins with naming objects with single-word labels, then progresses to labeling actions in the present progressive, describing objects in terms of long/short, big/little, and so forth. Other concepts included are same/different, location, why, sensory verbs, if/then, before/after, some/all/none, questioning skills (including the information-seeking function of questions), following instructions, synonyms, and so forth. The objectives, stated in behavioral terms, are impressive and explicit.

Within each of the cognitive areas, the language is carefully controlled, and where new grammatical structures are introduced, they are based on skills the children have already demonstrated. For example, after naming objects with single-word labels, the teacher develops a full statement by a modified "backward buildup" technique:

T: (points to picture of a boy) Boy. Say it.
Ch: Boy.
T: Again.
Ch: Boy.
T: Now say "a boy."
Ch: A boy.
T: Say "is a boy."
Ch: Is a boy.
T: Again.
Ch: Is a boy.

T: Now say the whole thing.
Ch: This is a boy.

The process is repeated in subsequent lessons with different objects until the children can produce a full statement in response to the command, "Say the whole thing." The authors emphasize in the teacher's guide that the full statement is appropriate only when making observations or responding to a specific command from the teacher - not as an answer to a question. Short answers are expected otherwise.

According to the authors, the teacher's job "is to prepare all of [the children] so that they can engage in discussions, think logically, and use language as a tool for thought." They state further that language is "not merely talking," but also a means of expressing concepts. The language taught in Distar is not social language, but the standard English of instruction used in schools. Thus, their aims differ from those whose goal is to teach standard conversational English. The assumption is that success in the upper grades of an English-speaking school is dependent upon a solid command of the concepts, language structures, and thinking operations of those schools.

Classroom Procedure. - A further departure from typical ESL programs is the insistence of the authors that the class be divided into homogeneous ability groups of five to ten children. In the first place, mixed-ability groups penalize the faster children with boredom and the slower children with frustrations - even to the point that the slower children give up and the faster children dominate. In the second place, small groups increase the teacher's ability to attend to the progress of individual children and to ensure individual response from each child every day. Finally, since an oral language program can hardly be individualized, grouping offers a situation in which the teacher can pace the material to the needs of small groups of individuals, as well as increasing the frequency of reinforcement to individuals.

The teacher is also instructed to establish signals and procedures for student response the first day of class and to make certain that every child responds every day - even the first. Teacher instructions in the presentation books are very explicit, telling the teacher what to say, what to point to, what response to expect from the children, what to do in case of error, and whether the task is for the whole group or for individual response. Each set of instructions is printed in a different color or type face. At the end of a presentation from any given book, the teacher is instructed what to do next; the program keeps track of itself, relieving the teacher from the burden of juggling rou-

tines. It is, in other words, well integrated.

The authors' justification for such an explicit teacher script is three-fold: first, a constant format provides the learner with a familiar framework in which to learn new items; second, the teacher's attention should be on the children to a greater degree than on the materials; and third, the benefits of a controlled program can be diminished, if not eliminated, by random adaptation. Teachers I have observed who have used this program consider it more demanding than traditional teaching in spite of the script, since they must regulate the pace and constantly assess the progress and mastery of each child. Also, while there is generally a period of initial resistance to being "told what to do," the same Distar teachers, after some experience with the program, have been enthusiastic about how much better they know their students, both personally and educationally.

Second Language Problems. - DISTAR LANGUAGE was developed for English-speaking children. Consequently, there is no structured presentation of English phonology - for example, of consonant clusters and intonation. Depending on the language background of the target population, introductory practice in hearing and producing the sounds of English may be necessary.

Further, the language is limited to that needed to talk about the concepts introduced in the program. There are no formulas of greeting or of politeness, for example. In short, there is no conversational language of the kind that non-English speaking children need. Of course, all this is not to say that a great deal of generalization and transfer will not take place.

Finally, no provision is made for explaining classroom instruction. For example, the commands, "Say the whole thing" and "Let's try it again," and the verbal reinforcements, "You said the whole thing!" and "You're working hard today," might need explanation if the child begins the class with no English. Any language teacher is faced with similar problems. However, presenting the commands, associating them with hand signals, then modeling the expected responses with similar items, should clarify the meaning.

[DISTAR LANGUAGE, I and II, by Sigfried Engelmann, Jean Osborn, and Therese Engelmann. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, 1969.]

Diane M. Allen
University of Utah

ENGLISH AROUND THE WORLD

Publishers are aware of special difficulties teachers face and are now offering materials especially designed for the teaching of English as a second language. One new ESL program, ENGLISH AROUND THE WORLD, was developed by Scott, Foresman and Company for the rapidly expanding international market, but is also being used with excellent results in the U.S. by teachers in migrant education programs, BIA schools, and, with some adaptation, in adult education classes.

Authors William Marquardt, professor of education at the University of Illinois, coordinator of TESOL at NYU in 1966, and a former teacher of English as a foreign language in several foreign countries; Jean Miller, curriculum consultant in English as a second language for the Association of American Schools of Central America; and Eleanore Hosman, area TESOL supervisor for the Chicago Public Schools, each with many years of teaching experience in this field, have clothed the solid structure of ENGLISH AROUND THE WORLD in attractive attire and have made it inviting to teachers and pupils.

The teacher's guidebooks, the key to the program, contain introductory essays by each of the authors on topics such as the problems likely to be encountered in learning English because of the differences in the language patterns of other languages, the importance of providing a variety of sensory-motor experiences in reinforcing language learning, and the value of role-playing and creative dramatics as aids to teaching English as a second language.

All materials the teacher needs are provided. There are three levels in the program, and it is ungraded, so that the materials may be used in a variety of classroom situations. Each level covers a normal year's work.

The entire first level of the program is aural-oral, with "pencil

and paperwork" limited to coloring, cutting out, and/or assembling pictures of people and objects in the lessons being studied. Most of the first year's learning takes place through teacher-pupil-class dialogues, with many songs, games and role-playing activities to reinforce the basic language concepts being taught.

A practical means of tying the lessons together is the story line - Miguel Garcia is a young visitor to America who is introduced to American ways and America by the Nelsons and their children. Miguel participates in their home and school activities and meets children from other parts of the world at the international school in New York City, where the Nelsons live. He goes on an extended tour of America with the Nelsons, which gives him (and the students) experiences of many kinds.

The story line develops interestingly and naturally for children. It follows Miguel from his arrival at the airport through his introduction to American home and school life and his visits to a farm, a zoo, a circus, and a ranch in the Southwest, to his tour of San Francisco before he leaves for his home in Peru. Miguel (and the children) learn the names of key features in each place in an almost spontaneous fashion.

Miguel's visit to the ranch will be of special interest to teachers of Indian children, since Miguel meets Joseph Tallfeather, foreman of the ranch near the Grand Canyon, and has a chance to see an Indian festival and to learn a little about Taos and Navajo crafts and skills.

Following the year's work in speaking English at Level One, children begin reading English with their first lesson at Level Two, and soon go on to writing the sentences they have constructed.

As with Level One, emphasis is still on acquiring language patterns, with many games and songs to provide variety and fun in each lesson. But, as in the entire program, good structure is provided. Aims for each lesson are specified; focus words to be emphasized are taught in the context of normal usage - <u>never in lists</u>; and suggestions for introduction, presentation and follow-up for each lesson are detailed and easy to follow.

A four-record album for each level contains the songs, language patterns, and pronunciation drills for the program. Both adult and children's voices are used on the records to acquaint children with variations in normal English speech. Other materials in the program, in addition to the teacher's guidebooks, pupil's skillbooks and practice pads, are posters, word and picture cards, and the record albums and pronunciation aids. With the exception

of the Teacher's Manual for Tape, which is in preparation, a complete set of materials for the teacher may be obtained for Level One for $44.43 and for Level Two for $48.18. For both levels, Pupils' Skill Books are $.96 each, and the Practice Pad and Test Books are $.60 each.

Level Three materials will be available early in 1972 and will follow the same pattern as Levels One and Two, with additional emphasis on American culture. One section will deal with American Indian contributions to our diet, our language, and our arts.

Helping children become proficient in English opens a new world of ideas and opportunities to them. Making the learning process as enjoyable and effective as possible is the goal of all of us - administrators, teachers, and publishers.

Jay Anderson, Field Representative
Kay Dean, Educational Consultant
Scott, Foresman and Company

ORAL ENGLISH

A review published in the Arizona Bilingual Council Newsletter, May, 1970.

ORAL ENGLISH: LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE, by Hadley A. Thomas, with Dr. Harold B. Allen as consulting linguist, published by the Economy Company, is a new, complete language program for the young student of English. As far as I know, it is unique in that it includes both structures and sound system in every lesson. It is complete in that it includes with the pictorial workbook and the Teacher's Edition, the following adjuncts:

two groups of language development cards
three wall charts (for teaching colors and numbers)
one pocket chart (for teaching weather concepts)

Both groups of cards are in full color. Group A, consisting of 266 9x12 cards, depicts scenes of the classroom, home, and community. These cards are used to develop concepts and to illustrate sentences presented for practice. Group B, consisting of 336 3x5 cards, depicts specific objects, and is to be used for practice of sounds and vocabulary building.

The program consciously teaches the second language culture, while yet not intimating to the young pupil that it is in any way better than his own. For example, the children shown are not of any one ethnic group; yet, on a given page (page 64), the scissors, the lunchroom, the piano, the baseball game, the furniture, the children's clothing, all bespeak the mainstream of American culture. This is a true reflection of the relationship between language and culture to the ESL learner, whether the child is learning his English in Abidjan, Allahabad, Amarillo . . . or on the Navajo Reservation in Arizona, where much of the material was developed for young Navajo pupils, and where Hadley Thomas has lived and worked for eighteen years. The children are uniformly dressed, but home may be a row house, a trailer, or a worn frame

house. And all the universal concepts are included, such as animals, plants, parts of the body, money, food, the wheel, weather, and the like.

The English sound system is quite thoroughly covered, not omitting such special Navajo difficulties as terminal stop sounds (/p/, /k/, /t/, and voiced counterparts) and terminal nasals (/n/, /m/, /ŋ/) and English th (/θ/, /ð/), troublesome to a great many ESL learners. Most consonant blends and clusters are also alien to non-European languages, to the extent that they occur in English.

"In Oral English," says the author, "emphasis is placed on learning the basic patterns of English rather than on acquiring a large vocabulary. New words can always be learned as the need arises, but the pupil will be unable to use the words in sentences for communication with others until he has gained reasonable control of the basic sentence patterns of English."

The author's recommendation of this text in teaching disadvantaged children should not be overlooked. Because the child is handicapped in speaking and listening practice, as well as limited in his experience with common cultural denominators, this book will enrich him in these areas, as well as provide orderly practice with standard English speech patterns.

The linguistics case of this book is evident. Throughout the teacher's plans, a modified musical notation is used to indicate intonation patterns. This is valuable for teaching-consistency, as, for any given sentence in English, there are several possible variations, depending on emphasis or emotional tone. The appendices in the back of the book give the primary teacher extensive insight into the phonology of English, and provide cultural-linguistic notes on both the Navajo and Spanish cultures.

Besides minimal pairs and other contrastive techniques to sharpen auditory discrimination, the pupils also learn to make simple transformations and substitutions. Complete sentence or short answer responses, showing mastery of the sentence patterns, are encouraged. Too many second language learners are allowed to reply with a monosyllable, gaining in comprehension, but not in proficiency. Communication is the first of the listed objectives of this program, and ought to head the list in any oral English program.

The material was originally tested in the classroom, using Navajo beginners and first graders, by Mrs. Lolita Tsinnie and Mrs. Marjorie Thomas, Navajo speakers themselves, under the direction of Hadley Thomas. The children were grouped according to the degree

of proficiency in the English language, from nil to some, as evidenced by advance testing. The four inter-unit tests revealed considerable gains in proficiency. "We found," says Mrs. Thomas, "that if we met the need for certain speech patterns as they arose, then when we came to them in the text, the children were just that much ahead. Naturally, this would be different for each group."

She went on to add that what she liked especially about this text is its graduated approach, beginning with the most elementary structures. This gives the child a sense of mastery from the very beginning.

Helen Thomas (Mrs. Hadley Thomas), using the books this year in first grade, confirms that mastery is the aim. Moreover, "if you work at it as directed, the teacher discovers how the child learns."

Her groups are small; Mrs. Thomas considers six to eight an appropriate number. Like Marjorie Thomas, Helen Thomas affirms that the children produce the learned patterns spontaneously - given a little time - in the course of their play or their daily routine thus bringing back full circle to the first of the listed objectives of the program: communication.

The publisher's address and price list follow:

Economy Company
P.O. Box 25308
1901 North Walnut
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73125
(405) 524-2213

	List Price	Net Price
Oral English	$ 1.96	$ 1.47
Teacher's Edition	1.96	1.47
Language Development Cards, A and B	100.00	75.00
Language Development Cards, A	80.00	60.00
Language Development Cards, B	28.00	21.00
Wall Charts	5.00	3.75
Pocket Chart	24.00	18.00

Beatrice W. Richmond
Tuba City, Arizona

ORAL LANGUAGE PROGRAM UTILIZED TO TEACH ENGLISH TO INDIAN SPEAKING CHILDREN

Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory (SWCEL) of Albuquerque has developed an Oral Language Program to teach English to Indian and Spanish speaking children. The program is a component of the Laboratory's Communication Arts Program to improve the early educational opportunities of Southwestern children.

SWCEL undertook work on the Oral Language Program (OLP) in 1967 to combat the critical educational problems of the many Southwestern children who enter school with little or no knowledge of English. The OLP stems from lessons (known as H-200) prepared at the University of California at Los Angeles under the direction of well known linguist Dr. Robert Wilson.

The OLP has undergone three revisions as the result of extensive field trials and pilot classroom testing under the direction of Dr. Robert T. Reeback and Helgi Osterreich. The program is now completed and ready for dissemination.

The OLP is designed to be used daily by one teacher with groups of up to ten children, ages five to seven. Each lesson is approximately 25 minutes long and the teacher additionally encourages children to use sentence patterns learned in the lessons at other times of the day. Early lessons consist of short and simple conversation while later lessons progress to more intricate patterns of speech.

A unique OLP component is Cultural Heritage Review Units designed to meet the special needs of Navajo as well as Spanish speaking children. Each unit is built around and based on authentic folktales or legends relevant to the Navajo or Spanish speaking child. At the same time, the units review OLP syntax and are intended to solve specific cultural problems in learning. The Navajo units, for example, emphasize basic sentence patterns that are difficult for the Navajo speaker.

Since SWCEL's philosophy dictates that training must precede usage of any Laboratory program, teachers are instructed in the correct utilization of OLP lessons and Cultural Heritage Review Units at in-service institutes. Some 225 teachers and aides who were trained this summer at institutes held under the auspices of SWCEL have implemented the OLP in their classrooms this Fall. Preservice training for more than 125 future teachers also is currently being offered at five Western universities including Fresno State, San Jose State, New Mexico State, California State at Bakersfield, and California Polytechnic Institute.

Insofar as SWCEL is a private non-profit research and development facility, the cost of teacher training depends upon the number of participants enrolled in an institute. The fee usually includes travel, per diem, all instructional material, all classroom material for both the children and teacher for the academic year, evaluation, follow up, and in-service training.

The OLP package includes a teacher's manual, six volumes of lessons, picture cards, and miscellaneous visual aides. The optional Cultural Heritage Units include slide/tape presentations, lessons, flannel figures, and a teacher's manual. Further information on SWCEL's OLP may be obtained by writing George Amsbary, c/o SWCEL, 117 Richmond N.E., Albuquerque, N.M. 87106.

Last year, 5,400 students benefited from the OLP in 180 classrooms in New Mexico, Oklahoma, California, Texas, and Nebraska. Some 1,000 of these youngsters were of Navajo, Cherokee, Pueblo, Apache, Sioux, Hopi, and other Indian origins.

SWCEL, one in a network of laboratories across the United States, works to develop educational programs for the Southwestern population. Emphasis is on the special needs of Indian and Mexican American children.

Judith L. Trujillo
Public Information Specialist
SWCEL

ROCK: REGION ONE CURRICULUM KIT

The southernmost tip of Texas, bounded on the east by the Gulf of Mexico and on the south and west by the Rio Grande River, has been predominantly Spanish-speaking since its colonization in the 1750's. It was not until the late 1960's, however, that a systematic method of teaching English to the Spanish-speakers was introduced in the schools of the area. It was the ESEA Title III legislation that provided the impetus that had been lacking. In a commendable display of unanimity, the superintendents of schools - there are nearly 50 school districts in the region - agreed to combine all of the resources available to them under that act and title and to commit them to a curriculum revision project aimed at establishing a sound ESL program for their primary classrooms.

By fortunate coincidence, Project H-200 in California was nearing completion at this time. The Office of Education had provided funding for UCLA and the California State Department of Education to write a series of ESL lessons for children in the primary grades. When permission to use these lessons in the Texas project was granted by the California authorities, the H-200 program became the base upon which the new curriculum plans and materials were built.

Now known as ROCK (Region One Curriculum Kit), the materials are available in two parts, Levels I and II. The first kit, intended for children entering school with little or no command of English, consists of a variety of materials needed for the suggested activities that provide language practice. These include synchronized filmstrip-record sets of folk tales in Spanish and in English, recorded language cards for either the Language Master or Audio-Flashcard machines, recordings of songs in Spanish and in English, and most of the illustrations and realia needed to teach the language lessons. The two-volume teacher's manual includes the 128 lessons, the suggested related activities, and detailed instructions for art and cooking. The Level II Kit contains only the

manuals, the illustrations, and the realia needed for the 115 lessons.

The ROCK materials were tested in California and Texas with non-English speaking Mexican-American children from the ages of five through seven. In California the field test was conducted while the lessons were being written. The Texas field test began in three classes, grew to twelve the following year, and forty the third year. In California the test was on the lessons alone, used in a "pull-out" situation, while in Texas we were testing the total ESL curriculum in a self-contained classroom.

The Region One staff devoted its efforts to planning a five or six hour daily program centered around the thirty minute H-200 lesson. Experiences in FLES programs and the advice of others convinced the project director that a foreign language could not be learned in thirty minute lessons taught once a day. Foreign language instruction to groups of twenty-five to thirty was also out of the question, particularly for learners under eight years of age. The task then, was one of planning activities for the smaller groups not engaged in direct instruction by the classroom teacher. Traditional "busy work" is not a viable method of providing practice in second language acquisition. Some way had to be devised to give the children language experiences and practice by mechanical means.

After several months of study, the search narrowed down to two types of voice reproducing machines - both capable of presenting a visual with an auditory stimulus. One unit projects a filmstrip which is advanced automatically and inaudibly by the accompanying recording. Here the sequence of images and sounds and the length of the presentation is fixed. No variation for individual differences is provided. The other unit, which plays back a 6-second magnetic tape attached to individual illustrated cards, permits endless repetitions of each recorded utterance. Material for both types of equipment had to be prepared because the few items commercially available at that time were not suited for the principal purpose - that of reinforcing the language patterns the child was learning in the daily lesson.

Synchronized Filmstrip

In the case of the synchronized filmstrip the choice of content was unlimited, except by our resources. Filmstrip production using original art is a long and expensive process. We planned to produce from fifteen to twenty sets in both English and Spanish in one year. These were to be stories interesting to small chil-

dren - primarily traditional folk and fairy tales. We produced two of our own and added our sound to fifteen selected from various producers.

The Spanish version of each story was prepared without any attempt to control the vocabulary or the sentence patterns. The dialect is one familiar to most Mexican-American children - that of northeastern Mexico. But the English versions of the same filmstrips were carefully planned and sequenced. The stories chosen for the early part of the year have a limited vocabulary and are told in the progressive tense using sentence patterns taught in the early lessons. Later in the sequence the English version approaches an unrestricted style. One talented person, Carol Perkins, wrote and narrated both versions, as well as composing songs and language drills for each story.

Illustrated Cards

The other device, the illustrated cards with magnetic tape recordings, is ideally suited to the task of tireless tutor. For example the child sees a drawing of a boy approaching a closet with a coat in his hand. On the magnetic tape also attached to the card is recorded the following: "What's he going to do?" (2-3 second pause) "He's going to hang up the coat." When a child plays this card on the appropriate machine, he is challenged to respond to a question, given time to answer, and then told the correct answer. If he has difficulty answering, he can play the card as many times as he wishes.

Three hundred eighty-five of these cards were produced for the kit. They are available in either Electronic Futures, Inc. or Bell & Howell format. Because they are ideally suited for practice on specific patterns, a teacher can make individual assignments to pupils during the entire year. The cards also provide the child with a variety of models to imitate (at least four different voices are heard on the cards.).

Additional Activities

Additional activities that serve to extend language practice appear in the Appendix indexed by types - art, songs, games, etc. These suggestions are sometimes linked to specific lessons - for example, the lyrics of a song may be identical to language forms taught in a particular lesson. But for the most part the teacher can choose those she considers to be most nearly suitable to her needs.

One activity that is recommended daily is "Sharing Time." Early in the morning the teacher gathers the children before a blank chart and elicits comments from them, in either language, concerning their experiences the previous day. She chooses a few of the comments, such as "Pedro said, 'We went to Reynosa last night'," and writes them on the chart. No other activity, performed daily, has as many positive values as this one. It provides a permanent record of language growth, practice for oral expression, readiness for reading, and opportunities for developing self-esteem - the self-concept of each child.

Testing

While no control over the "proper" use of the lessons and related activities has been attempted, there has been an interest in determining the effectiveness of the instructional packages. Since oral proficiency can only be measured by an oral test administered individually, the amount of data that has been collected is relatively small. Still another limiting factor has been the unavailability of a test that could be regarded as a fair measure of the language proficiency of children five and six years of age. In spite of these limiting factors, testing has been a part of the development of the materials since 1968.

The instrument used initially was the Michael Test of Oral Language Proficiency, designed by the late Lois Michael, one of the writers of the H-200 Lessons. The test has been evaluated by the Southwest Cooperative Educational Laboratory in Albuquerque, present owner of the test materials. Our experience with the test indicates that the items that test vocabulary and pronunciation are of little value because no significant differences have been found between experimental and control groups in tests administered by us. We also found that the items that measure control of syntax included many "Ask me" commands. Contrivances are undoubtedly necessary in language tests, but requests like "Ask me what my name is" are so unnatural that even native English speakers hesitate before answering.

Our solution was to eliminate vocabulary and pronunciation items and concentrate on the sentence patterns taught in the lessons. In order to remove the microphone and the awkward questioning we arranged a telephone circuit with the examiner and the tape recorder at one end of the line, and the subject, another telephone, and a third party at the other end. This system permits the examiner to ask the pupil questions and to direct him to ask questions that are perfectly normal under those circumstances. For example: "Pedro, is someone there with you?" ("Yes.") "What's his name?"

("I don't know.") "Ask him." ("What's your name?") "Do you know what he ate for breakfast?" ("No, sir.") "Ask him." ("What did you eat for breakfast?")

Further refinements of this test are needed, but the technical problems of recording the responses and the problem of directed questions have been solved. The results of the 1970-71 tests indicate that pupils who are taught English through H-200 lessons, both Level I and Level II, score significantly higher than pupils in control groups. (Thomas H. Linton. Unpublished Final Evaluation Report on Region One Bilingual Project, July 31, 1971.)

Teacher resistance to the "new" methods is noticeable during the first few months. After mid-year no teacher has been willing to give up her manual. Teacher opinion of the lessons is generally high, particularly during the second year when the effects of the daily lesson begin to be noticed. A few teachers have even suggested that English speakers would benefit from a modified H-200 course.

Administrative support for this primary ESL curriculum is essential during the first year. Special equipment is needed, as well as appropriate furniture. This initial capital outlay could run as high as one thousand dollars, though classrooms have been equipped for as little as four hundred dollars. The annual per pupil cost, calculated over the life of the materials and equipment should not exceed ten dollars, or slightly over five cents per day per pupil. Complete kits are priced at $160.00 for Level One and $50.00 for Level Two. They may be obtained from:

Melton Book Company, Inc.
111 Leslie Street
Dallas, Texas 75207

Until the H-200 graduates complete their elementary education we will not be able to measure the "residual gains." The experience of the first five years, however, has not diminished our expectations. We are seeing positive results each year - children with confidence in their ability to express themselves in English without giving up their mother tongue. This, we feel, justifies our efforts and the federal expenditures that supported them.

Alfonso R. Ramirez, Region I Education Service Center
Paper presented at Fifth Annual Convention
of TESOL in New Orleans, March, 1971

STORIES IN TWO LANGUAGES

LAKOTA

Ghost Story Number One

tuwa t'a cana takolaku nainš titakuye etan wanji iyotanla cana hektakiya gli našna teȟila nainš unšilake cin he kipan keyapi na he ayupta cana inšeya iyecana t'a keyapi ecin he wanagi kin wicagliyahi ca heun hecaca na tuktektel unma niun kin he niun icanl lila wanagi kin kakišye s'a ske / na he kicohipi keyapi na ecel ayupta cana t'a keyapi tka tak'eya ayupte šni ehantans t'e šni tka ayupta cana he "to wau kte lo" eya iyececa keyapi / hehanl tuwa tankal ceya kunza naȟ'unpi cana he tuwa tiwahe kin etanhan wanji kunzapi keyapi nainš kokoyaȟ'anla winyela ca hoton cana wancag kat'api he e cin wakunze keyapi na heun hehan tuktel tuwa ta"sister" teȟila na t'e ehantanš iyecana tankeku kin hi na agni kte ȟcin s'a keyapi na ahanajin cana hanhepi iyohi mazawakan kutepi nainš oceti akanl pejuta akalyapi hecel wizite cin he kokipin kta keyapi / heun hehanl tuwa išnala omani cana i iyuȟmipi ške / nakun išta kin yuȟmiȟmi ške / hecel hena wanagi hecunpi nainš nagi kin wanwicayankapi keyapi wicaša wanjigji wanagi kin

tuktel išnala omanipi cana iyena wanagi wanwicayanka šk e / hecel hanhepi cana išnala omani okihipi šni hena wanagi ihanblapi keyapi tka tokel he kapi slolwaye šni / nakun wicaša wanjigji wanagi wanyankapi iglakapi kin hena kakel wanwicayankapi keyapi tuktel išnala omanipi cana wanagi ihanblapi kin hena wanagi kin tanic'iye ȟci upi šni tka tate iyecel upi na hankeya wicaša tokecakaca t'a ehantanš he e ca wanyanka keyapi nagi kin he e ca tanin šk e / tka taku okoyaka nainš ceȟpi kin tokeca he wanyankapi šni tka ecela nagi kin he e ca wanyankapi keyapi na ite kin tokeca kin ataya ko wanyankapi keyapi na peta yuhala keyapi / he ehanni oblake /

[From Teton Dakota Texts, by George Bushotter. Manuscripts deposited with the Smithsonian Office of Anthropology. Originally collected in 1887-1888 under the direction of J. Owen Dorsey. Free translations by William K. Powers, Department of Anthropology, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut.]

Free Translation of "Ghost Story Number One"

When somebody dies, his ghost may return to call for a friend or a close relative whom it loved or pitied. If a person answers the call, he immediately dies because the ghost has come back for him. This is the nature of ghosts.

Sometimes during a person's lifetime he makes ghosts suffer. They come to call him and if he answers he dies, but if he says nothing he will live. But he will die if he answers, "Yes, I will come."

When a person hears somebody crying outside, it means that someone in his family is doomed to die. Or if a person hears a hen crow, he must strike it dead at once for it is heralding someone's death. If someone loves his sister and she dies, her ghost will come back immediately to take him with her and she will haunt him. Every night, in order to scare the ghost away, one must shoot off a gun or burn incense and the smoke will frighten away the ghost.

Some people travel alone and their mouths or eyes become distorted. They say that the ghosts do this, or that the people have seen ghosts. Some men see ghosts whenever they travel and consequently cannot travel alone at nighttime. They say that they have visions of ghosts, but I don't know what this means.

Also, some men talk with ghosts. Wherever they travel they have visions of ghosts and the ghosts become visible. They don't appear as a person, but as a wind. If in time this kind of man dies, they say it is because he saw a ghost and it became visible to him. However, these men can never discern what the ghost is wearing or how its flesh looks, but only that it is a ghost. Its face is strange, but you can see all of it, and they say that it is like the walking fire. I told this story a long time ago.

["Peta yuhala" is the name of will-o'-the-wisp, ignis fatuus, which grows abundantly along the White River in South Dakota. The Indians call it "walking fire," or, "it goes with fire."]

CROW

Ma:lá:x

Shiká:kka:tdak i:kammishé dá:sa:su:t Ma:lá:x he:lu:h chelu:k. Há:kse:sh i:í:lashih chelu:k. Ma:lá:x ishbá:le sáhpuah chelu:k. Isahká:lelak i:lápxisa:hkelak kón á:hku:h chelu:k. A:súa: Ma:xawúa Ashé ko:láh chelu:k. Ma:lá:x hiláwittak ko:tá:, á:mmishde i:shé:h chelu:k.

Chilá:akshilak kalasásh chi:lé:ash ko:tá:k ba:lu:shíssa:ta:hilia bilihpiláhne chelu:k. Ammeáxen ma:ákachkalak duttá:k ishba:alakuluxáxxe awussá:ahiak he:lesh kala:xtá:k dá:kuak ba:lúshdelak hé:lapko hinné ma:ákachkesh i:kushták isahká:le ichkí:se ápa:liale:lak i:lísa:k i:kshí:shitta:hak á:latsa:leh chelu:k.

I:sa:kassa:wa:tdak hinné isa:hkesh sá:pdak hiliatak kushbasá:lelak dushúa:n alapía:k alashkúah chelu:k. Hinné ma:ákachkesh dúa:la:k ko:lassé:h chelu:k. Hinné ba:shichi:sa:ché:sh hé:lapko Ma:lá:x isó:ssheo appe:tá:lak hile:shén dé:h chelu:k.

(Crow orthography as it is presently in use)

CROW

The Crazy One

There was a little boy whose big brothers called him the crazy one. This is the way big brothers always call their little brother to show that he is young. But for this little boy finally it became his name and everybody called him "Crazy One." They say he was seven years old. He lived in Crow Agency with his grandmother and grandfather.

Crazy One was an early riser and also he was a very curious, mischievous boy. One morning as usual he got up early. He didn't even eat. He went swimming. On the way he found a garter snake and put it in his pocket. Then he forgot about the snake in his pocket.

After swimming he went home to eat. As he ate, the garter snake got out and crawled along the floor and wrapped itself around grandmother's ankle.

She screamed. She tried to kick it off. She fell backwards in her chair, still screaming and kicking. In her kicking, she kicked grandfather and knocked him over.

In the noise and confusion the garter snake slipped off and got away. While this was happening, Crazy One ate up all the goodies and disappeared.

Joy T. Toineeta
Euna Rose He Does It
Dora Rides Horse
Dale Old Horn
Bilingual Crow Teachers
Title VII Bilingual Education
Crow Agency, Montana 59022

UTE

A Trip to the Sundance

Nűmu wítüsoru towéyakivatüma manáuku purúku Pínuwai tawűnikata. Kwátipana nűmu oníku. Kwatísipau tavícha wíchaküsa wákarukau nűmu oníkiümu. Mákusipau, Turákopausa. Nűmu uwéikwa Pínuwa uwéikwasa. Pináuku túkwana nűmura kwátipana tawűnikaivatugu oní'wei. Ivátugu nűmoru oníku, tovíakai avátapapüna, avátuma kaákatuma kwípakayuku. Nűmu ináugatukoru kwíakati oníku. Űmowa kumáuwasa pünípkapeikatuma űmowa. Kapéikuwasa Núchiu kumáuwasa, núnuwatumoraisa ivátugu nükáva. Páisura ümíkatümu urá'ai. Káchura péikinuwa uváta kamávachümu manáuku. Páitowani, páitukwani oráu tawünükai. Kapéikuwasa uwéyeva kamávachümu umó kaákinura'isa. Úwísakaakoru tawünikapi nümíapanau. Pináukatümu nágati tawünikavatümu pinúvia urávacha.

[An alphabet for the Ute language, at present unwritten, is in the process of being developed. This is one of the first stories published in the preliminary orthography.]

A Trip to the Sundance

Some time ago, we went from Towaoc to Ignacio at Sundance time. We went by car. We went by Cortez early in the morning. We passed through Mancos and Durango also. We soon arrived at Ignacio. Later, in the night, we went over to the Sundance grounds. As we approached, we heard the big drum being struck by the singers. We entered the corral with the other spectators. There were many Utes and other Indians at the Sundance. There were only three dancers there but there was a large crowd of people. The Sundance was held for three days and three nights. The songs were many. There were songs sung by the various tribes of Indians. After the Sundance was over, we came home. Next year we hope to have a better Sundance at Ignacio.

[Dictated by a member of the Ute Mountain Ute Tribe in Towaoc, Colorado, and transcribed by Mr. John Green, Ute linguist]

NAVAJO

ÁSHĮĮHÍ DINE'É

Ałk'idą́ą́', jiní, Dinétah hoolyéegi t'ah Diné kéehat'ĮĮdą́ą́', áádóó Áyahkingóó ndajibaah, jiní. Áko áadi áłchíní yisná, Kiis'áanii ba'áłchíní. 'Éí adzisnáanii Tsénjíkiní dine'é jílĮįgo.

Aadóó shĮĮ éí Dinétahdi bił ńjíkai. Áadi shĮĮ at'éédnlínę́ę dá'ák'eh yaa áhályą́ągo ájiilaa. Hooghandóó daa shĮĮ nízahgi, Áshįįh Deez'á hoolyé jiní, 'éí biyaagi hadá'ák'ehgo. Éí shĮĮ t'áá ákwíí jį ákǫ́ǫ́ałnáájíł'aah. T'áadoo le'é dá'ák'eh nájahgo dloziiłgai índa hazei índa gáagii ádaat'éhígíí, éí shĮĮ yik'i néiniłka' biniiyé.

Áko shĮĮ t'áá áadi bee e'e'ááh. E'e'áahgo índa áádę́ę́' nádáah łeh. Áko shĮĮ ádajiní, "Ńléí lá ha'át'íí yigááł?" dajiníi łeh. "Doodayéi ńléí yee' Áshįįh Deez'áádę́ę́' at'éédát'į́," dajiníi łeh. Wónáásdóó shĮĮ "T'óó ńléí yee' At'éédÁshįįhí át'į́," dajiníi łeh.

Jó aadóó éí adeeshchĮĮdóó éidí yę́ę Áshįįhí dabizhdííniid. Áko éí lą'í bik'éí k'ad. Jó bee hodeeshzhiizhdi éí Tsénjíkiní bisná. Áko éí íiyisí bik'éí. Índa Mą'ii Deeshgiizhnii, éídó' t'áá íiyisí bik'éí. Éí ha'át'éego shĮĮ bik'éí silĮĮ'. Índa Dibé Łizhiní, éídó' bik'éí. Áádóó k'éts'ósí danlíinii éí díkwíí shĮĮ.

Jó ákót'éego Áshįįhí Dine'é hazlĮĮ'. Dinétah hoolyéedi yisnááh nlĮįgo bił ná'iisdee'.

In the Spring, 1971, issue we printed Navajo and English versions of "The Salt Clan." Unfortunately our English-speaking typewriter and staff were not adequate for the task of reproducing the carefully handwritten copy sent to us by Agnes and Wayne Holm, and the resulting Navajo was like nothing anyone had ever seen before. For this reason, we are printing the same story again. This time Dr. Robert W. Young kindly consented to type it for us on his own typewriter, which speaks Navajo. Dr. Young is presently working for the Navajo Reading Study at the University of New Mexico, replacing Dr. Bernard Spolsky, who is on leave.

The Origin of the Salt Clan

Long ago, they say, when the people were still living at the place called People Among, they went from there to war against the Hopi, they say. And, over there, they captured children, Pueblo children. The one who had captured them belonged to Rock House Dwellers clan.

Then he went back to the People Among with them. Over there, he put the one who was a girl in charge of the corn field. At a certain distance from the hogan, there was place called Salt Extends Out, they say, and below that [place] was his corn field. . . .he sent her back and forth over there every day. Certain [creatures] wandered about the corn field; squirrels and chipmunks and crows [and] others of that sort. She was there to drive them away.

And so she spent her days over there. When the sun was setting, then she generally went back home from there. And so [people] would speak thus: "It is that someone coming over there?" they would say: "No, it is only that one, it is the girl from Salt Extends Out," they would say. Later on, "It is only that one, it is the Salt Girl," they would say.

From that time on, from the time when she gave birth to children, these are the ones they called Salt [people]. And so these [people] have many clan-relatives now. But at the beginning, they were captured by the Rock House People. And so these very ones are their relatives. And the Coyote Gap People, they also are ones who are related to them. They, in some way or other, have become their relatives. How many there are in addition [to those] who are slightly related is not known.

In this way, the Salt clan came into being. They came back with them as captives to the place called People Among.

[From NAVAHO TEXTS, ed. by Edward Sapir and Harry Hoijer. Ann Arbor: Linguistic Society of America, 1942, pp. 91-93. The Navajo has been retranscribed by Agnes and Wayne Holm.]

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NAVAJO LANGUAGE

Navajo is a member of a subgroup of the Athabascan branch of the Nadene language family. The Nadene family includes four major branches; the Eyak, the Haida, the Tlingit, and the Athabascan. The Athabascan branch includes a number of more or less closely related languages in interior Alaska, western Canada, the northwest Pacific coast, and the Southwestern United States (Navajo, Chiricahua, Mescalero, Lipan, Jicarilla, Kiowa-Apache). The southwestern group comprises the Apachean subgroup of those related languages which trace their Nadene ancestry through proto-Athabascan.

Anthropological and linguistic research seems to indicate that the Nadene speaking people arrived in Alaska from Asia about 3000 years ago. By the close of the first millenium after their arrival, the Tlingit and Athabascan separation had already taken place, and at a period between 1300 and 1000 years ago, segments of the Athabascan speaking peoples migrated to the Pacific coastal area. The migration of other Athabascan speaking people, called the Apacheans, to the Southwest seems to have occurred about 1000 to 600 years ago, and linguistic differentiation into the modern forms of Apachean (i.e. Navajo, Jicarilla, Chiricahua, Lipan, etc.) has taken place over the course of the past 400 to 500 years, beginning about the time of the discovery of America.

The relationship of the Nadene to languages of the Old World remains to be definitively demonstrated and established, but there is a strong probability that a relationship may be proved between Nadene and the Sino-Tibetan languages (i.e. the ancestral form of the Chinese and Tibetan languages).

[Adapted from "A Sketch of the Navajo Language" by Robert W. Young in The Navajo Yearbook, Report No. VIII, 1961, courtesy Navajo Parks & Recreation, Window Rock, Arizona.]